The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, MAY 20, 1897.

The Week.

The short Cuban message sent to the Senate by the President on Monday by no means met the expectations of the Jingoes. It merely says that official information from our consuls in Cuba establishes the fact that a large number of American citizens in the island are in a state of destitution, suffering for want of food and medicines; that the agricultural classes have been forced from their farms into the nearest towns, where they are without work or money; that the local authorities of the several towns, however kindly disposed, are unable to relieve the needs of their own people, and are altogether powerless to help our citizens; that the latest report of Consul-General Lee estimates that 600 to 800 are without means of support. The President adds that he has promised relief, and recommends an immediate appropriation of $50,000 to be expended under the direction of the Secretary of State, and to be used, in part, to bring home American citizens who have no money for the purpose. This purely humane recommendation was at once passed by the Senate without a dissenting vote, though its immediate passage in the House was blocked by Mr. Bailey of Texas, in order to complicate it with the question of belligerency.

The House temporarily resumed its prerogatives as a deliberative body last week, and the results are greatly to the public advantage. The Senate tacked on to the sundry civil appropriation bill an amendment which proposed to nullify the action of President Cleveland during the last days of his administration in establishing great forest reserves in the far West. In taking this step the Senate only illustrated again the readiness of that body to yield to the appeals of those who have private interests to serve by opposing measures in the public interest. The representatives of these interests worked hard to secure the concurrence of the House, but they could carry only 39 votes as against 100 on the other side. A settlement will now be reached by which President McKinley will be granted discretionary powers in the matter, but the main result aimed at by Mr. Cleveland's order will not be seriously affected. The Senate amendment would virtually have defeated the whole movement for the preservation of forests which are essential to the national interests, and the easy surrender of that branch constitutes another count in the popular indictment against it.

Another commendable act by the House was the refusal to concur in the Senate amendment appropriating $50,000 for the improvement of Pearl Harbor, in the Hawaiian islands. Mr. Hitt, chairman of the committee on foreign affairs in the last House, urged the scheme, on the ground that "by this small expenditure we can put our foot down, plant our flag at the entrance of that river, and it will not come down in a thousand years." Mr. Cannon replied very effectively that the proposed appropriation would not suffice to dredge the sand from the harbor, to say nothing of buying a foot of land or beginning a naval station. Mr. Sayers enforced this argument by the declaration, which everybody knew to be well founded, that as soon as Pearl Harbor had been improved, the Government would be called on to spend several millions in fortifying it, and warned the House that the next step in this policy would be annexation of the islands. Two or three spread-eagle speeches in favor of annexation were made, but they evoked little enthusiasm, and when the vote was taken, 85 voted against the proposed appropriation and only 53 for it.

Senator Tillman of South Carolina has written a letter to a business firm in Charleston, Bernard O'Neill & Sons, telling what he thinks about the tariff bill and how he intends to vote on particular items embraced in it. The firm in question had written to him to protest against the increase of duty on salt mackerel. The present duty is three-fourths of a cent per pound. Dingley raised it to 1½ cent, and the Senate committee compromised on 1 cent. O'Neill & Sons held that it was "not wise to increase the price of fish at the dictation of a few vessel-owners of the East, who would, under the contemplated law, have a monopoly of the fish trade at the expense of the people of the interior who consume fish products." Senator Tillman replied that he was in favor of making the bill as odious as possible in order to bring people to their senses on the subject of tariffs, which were framed to foster sectional interests and to benefit corporations and classes. There is a gleam of common sense in this observation. In the task of making the bill odious, Tillman has so much coöperation that he can hardly fail of his aim. The sugar schedule and the wool schedule will prove far more effectual for this purpose than any possible duty on salt fish. One cent per pound on mackerel will be only as dust in the balance compared with the duty on hides. There is more room and ground for fighting over the repeal of the Hawaiian reciprocity treaty for the benefit of the California beet-growers than over the entire fish schedule. And what about the duty of 10 cents per pound on tea? This duty taken by itself, being for revenue only, would be defensible, but when coupled with schemes to add to the profits of people who are already rich, it becomes odious, and it will be heard from as soon as the duty begins to be felt in the increased price of tea. Senator Tillman may labor to make people execrate the bill, but his contributions to that end will be trifling as compared with those of Dingley and Aldrich.

The *Tribune's* Washington correspondent tries to throw a ray of cheer into the tariff gloom by raising the nice point whether the Senate has a constitutional right to upset everything, including the *Tribune*, with such a bill as is now proposed. Of course, the Senate may "amend," but does that imply that it may amend away protection, may actually put revenue taxes into a revenue bill? This correspondent thinks not. A protective tariff is constitutional—everybody will admit that rather than read the treatises proving it. Revenue taxes are constitutional. But mix up the two things in a single bill, and the result is unconstitutional. We hope that is clear? But Senators will only laugh a ribald laugh at all this and go right on. They will say they are proceeding under the "general welfare" clause of the Constitution, and will ask what better way there is to promote the general welfare than by beginning with their own particular welfare.

The statement of this country's foreign trade during April, just published by the Bureau of Statistics, can be described only as marking sudden and violent interference with the legitimate commercial movement. With the season's slack demand for home consumers, and with the slow marketing of goods already held in stock, imports of foreign merchandise have for many months been light. Even in March, with the extra session called and higher tariff duties obviously impending, increase in foreign importations was comparatively slight, and exports still exceeded them by nearly eleven millions. But by the opening of April, the astonishing retroactive clause was threatened; received at first with incredulity, the threat was carried out a few days later, and new duties were sought to be levied on everything not actually engaged for import before the 1st of April. The result was a sudden rush of import orders. Some people bought for speculative purposes; some in order to hold their market; some through no motive but the

LICENSED TO UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

fright which under such circumstances drives a body of usually cool-headed business men into a species of unreasoning panic. The results are spread upon the latest Government returns. The record of April importations rises from $76,372,831 in March, and from $58,649,579 in April, 1896, to no less a sum than $101,305,131.

This is the largest import of foreign merchandise for the month ever recorded in our history. No April importations, during the past ten years, have approximated last month's aggregate. In the spring of 1893 the import movement was unprecedentedly great, and the recklessness with which such purchases were made brought its own penalty, later in the season, when the bills had to be met on international exchange. Yet even in April, 1893, merchandise importations rose no higher than $84,991,000, or sixteen millions less than last month's entries. If our present export trade were only at the level of four years ago, the excess of importations during April would have left this country chargeable with forty million dollars on account of the month's transactions. As it is, even with our heavy export movement, the balance, for the first time since October, 1895, has swung against this country; excess of imports during April being $23,579,431. If such a trade balance had been caused by legitimate demand for goods at home, it might easily have been interpreted as a sign of revived prosperity. But forced as it actually has been under the lash of an unheard-of legislative threat, and with no change in domestic markets, it is no wonder that the foreign exchanges have moved rapidly against us, that we have sent abroad nearly $12,000,000 gold since the middle of April, and that some of the old signs of discouragement are once more visible. We wish we could believe that this new lesson in the danger of laying violent hands upon our foreign commerce could be learned by the complacent dogmatists at Washington.

The principal facts in the case of Mr. E. R. Chapman, the broker who is going to jail rather than betray two or three members of the Senate, are as follows: The House, in the revenue-reform tariff bill of 1894, put sugar, raw and refined, on the free list. This did not suit the Sugar Trust, which derives a substantial part of its revenue from the sugar duty, paying in return the usual political subvention. Accordingly it got a suitable duty put on in the Senate, by the aid of three or four Senators who, though Democrats, deserted the Wilson bill and gradually converted it into the present Gorman-Bryce tariff. Curiously enough, it leaked out that Senators were "speculating" in the certificates of the Sugar Trust, and when we say speculating, we mean, not gambling, as the innocent lambs do in Wall Street, and getting sheared by the bears and bulls for their pains, but buying or selling on a market which they raised or depressed by votes, these votes being given in theory according to the dictates of conscience, but in fact cast so as to line their pockets. This caused a scandal, and resulted in an investigation and the summoning to Washington of Mr. Chapman, who refused point-blank to answer any questions as to who his customers were or what their speculations had been. In thus refusing he committed contempt, and also brought himself within the provisions of sections 102-104 of the Revised Statutes, making such a contempt punishable by a fine of not less than $100 and not more than $1,000, and imprisonment of not less than one nor more than twelve months.

Mr. Chapman was thereupon indicted by the United States District Attorney in the District of Columbia, Mr. Davis, tried, and sentenced to a month in jail. This sentence has been confirmed by the Supreme Court, and to jail Mr. Chapman has now gone, an attempt to obtain a pardon for him by some of his speculative friends having broken down. The case was a test case, and Mr. Davis, who appears to be a man of courage, now promises to bring to the bar several other gentlemen who refused to answer the questions, viz.: Messrs. McCartney and Seymour, brokers; Messrs. Edwards and Shriver, correspondents, and last, but not least, Messrs. Havemeyer and Searles of the Sugar Trust. The importance of the case legally lies not so much in the punishment which has overtaken Mr. Chapman as it does in the complete demonstration of the power of the Senate to get at facts touching the corruption of its own members if it desires to do so. As often as any one refuses to testify, to jail he can be sent, and the most resolute broker would rather tell the whole truth than spend many months even in a comfortable jail. But its political importance is far greater, for it comes just at the moment when a new sugar schedule is pending in the Senate, and "speculation" is beginning again, and a new scandal is openly promised. It could not come at a more inconvenient time, for it directs all eyes to the Senate, and to the one great Trust which everybody knows wrings half its swollen substance out of the public by the aid of Senators, through votes obtained under circumstances which those cognizant of them are obliged to conceal, lest the ring be broken up by the courts.

Gov. Black, in his first message to the Legislature, gave notice of his intention to attack and break down the civil-service regulations in this State. That the bill of his preparing which he has just made law is intended to do this, there is not a shadow of a doubt. His own memorandum, one of the most extraordinary state papers of our time, confesses this in every line. Its unconscious admissions are the best evidence of the Governor's intent and that of his bill. Heretofore it has been customary for the spoils politicians to complain because the civil-service examinations gave most of the places in the service to college graduates. As this falsehood has been exposed too many times to be repeated with safety, the Governor says that, "under the old system, the recent graduate of the high school or college would be almost certain to be appointed." He finds even the high-school educational test too high for machine political ability, and sneers at that as well as at the college test. "Under the proposed method," he adds, in describing his own bill, "the chances of the practical man for appointment will be greatly increased." Everybody knows who this "practical man" is. The Governor draws the distinction between him and the high-school and college graduate, and quite properly too. It is useless to waste argument or remonstrance upon an official like this. He is carrying out the work for which he was put in office. He speaks of the desirability of having heads of departments select their own subordinates, adding that such a head will be "steadied by his bond and the responsibilities of a great bureau." He is himself the head of the government of the State, and how did his bond and the responsibilities of his great bureau steady him? The appointments of Lou Payn and Jake Worth are sufficient answer.

"Every head of a department," remarked Gov. Black in his civil-service-law memorandum, "not so cowed by the perennial reproach of the civil-service Pharisee that he is afraid to tell the whole truth, will declare that he could secure better help for his own office than an examining board can select for him." In the face of this bold defiance of the Pharisee by the head of the State government, three heads of departments in this city remain in such a "cowed" condition as to say that they so far prefer to have the examining board select their help for them that they decline to avail themselves of the privileges of the Governor's law. Mr. Scott, Corporation Counsel, and Col. Waring declare that they are such thorough believers in civil-service reform that they have requested the local civil-service examining board to continue to select their employees for them. Gen. Collis of the Public Works Department says also that he is a "great believer in civil-service reform," and that, with the exception of laborers, he prefers to have the examining board select his subordi-

LICENSED TO UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

nates. The contempt which our valiant Governor feels for these quaking victims of "Pharisee" wrath must be inexpressible.

The essential feature of the American civil-service system as it has now existed for fifteen years in the federal, State and city services is the vesting of the function of examination and rating in a board totally independent of and separate from the appointing power. Under it, the great body of minor civil offices throughout the country have ceased to be the spoils of party warfare, and in this State the system has been intrenched in the Constitution by a provision that appointments and promotions shall be made according to merit and fitness, "to be ascertained, so far as practicable, by examinations, which, so far as practicable, shall be competitive." The new civil-service law breaks up this system, allows the civil-service examiners to rate candidates up to only 50 per cent., leaving the other 50 per cent. to be rated by the head of the department. To make this constitutional in form, one-half of the rating is to be for "merit" and the other half for "fitness." That is, there is to be a genuine competitive civil-service examination as to "merit," and those who pass this best will go through another examination as to "fitness," which the appointing officer will arrange to suit himself. It is true that the act says that these examinations are to be "competitive so far as practicable," but under the recent decision of the Court of Appeals, it is no doubt hoped that the court will hold the character of the second examination to be very much in the discretion of the appointing officer, and that he will be able to manage it so that in most cases those of his party will turn out to have both merit and fitness; the others only merit.

Success in this scheme would break up the whole civil-service system, and make the constitutional provision a mere form of words, and it is only fair to the Court of Appeals, whose recent civil-service decision has been so much criticised, to say that there is nothing in it which makes it certain that the majority of the court will uphold this statute. The reason why the decision so greatly raised the hopes of those who are making the present attack on the civil service was, that the Republican judges who constituted the majority seemed to go out of their way to declare the "practicability" of competition to be a matter of discretion; but they at the same time declared that the number of non-competitive offices must be very small. The law presents a question which was not then in any way before the court—whether the system provided under it, separating merit and fitness, as if they were two distinct species of qualifications (instead of being, as they were no doubt intended to be, mere general terms), and prescribing a genuine examination for one, and then a second examination for the other, which might easily have the effect of nullifying the first, is anything but a mere sham. In fact, every one knows that this is not competition so far as practicable, but spoils so far as practicable. Can it be in law exactly the opposite? The sooner the question is tested the better.

If the next New York Legislature is made of the same valiant stuff as the last one was, we shall look for an assault upon that section of the Constitution which gives mayors of cities the right to veto municipal legislative measures. The section does not bother the legislators at all so long as it operates while they are in session. They can always "jam through" a measure over a veto, and thus show the obstructive mayors what they think of them; but after adjournment the case is different. The veto of a mayor then kills the bill. No less than fifty bills have been killed in this way since the Legislature adjourned, twenty-four of them relating to this city. Think of Mayor Strong being able to exert a power like that against the will of our Platt Government! He paralyzes the whole system by giving the people of this city a voice in the management of their own affairs. Just imagine the consequences had the new charter been vetoed after adjournment! Something will have to be done about this in the future. The constitutional provision will have to be "got around" in some such way as Gov. Black's civil-service bill has "got around" the civil-service-reform amendment. Platt Government and popular government cannot exist side by side. Either he must rule the cities, together with the State at large, or his power will be undermined and will crumble away. Lexow and Raines should bend their minds upon this subject and solve it by next winter.

Gov. Pingree of Michigan may be a demagogue, but he mixes a good deal of common sense with his bids for popular favor. The Legislature recently passed a bill supplementing the present law forbidding the sale of cigarettes, or, indeed, tobacco in any form, to minors under the age of seventeen, by a provision that the minor to whom such goods are sold or given shall be deemed guilty of a misdemeanor, to be punished by fines of $5 for the first offence, $10 to $25 for the second, and $30 to $50 for the third, while the fourth would involve imprisonment in the county jail or industrial home. The practical result of enforcing such a law would be that any boy found smoking a cigarette would be branded as a criminal, and fined to an amount which neither he nor his parent or guardian might be able to pay, in which case he must go to jail at once, while imprisonment would be inevitable if he should be caught with a cigarette a fourth time. Gov. Pingree very properly refused to approve this bill. He thinks that smoking cigarettes is a bad thing for boys, but that there are worse things, as sending a youth among criminals because he has been foolish enough to form a habit which he should be taught to drop. Moreover, he holds that every child should be taught that law is sacred, and that the statutes of the State are entitled to obedience and respect; and that "to teach this lesson we must avoid making laws which are easily evaded, and which, on account of their severity, are not respected." The astonishing thing is that Legislatures should pass bills which are so absurd that they are dropped the moment a Governor points out their folly.

The news comes from South America that Bolivia is about to adopt the gold standard, although she is reputed to be richer in undeveloped or partly developed silver mines than any other country on the globe. The famous Potosi mine is in Bolivia, and geologists tell us that this is only one of the rich veins with which that country abounds, and is not the richest one. Bolivia is still undeveloped. It needs only railway communication and mining machinery to pour out upon the world stores of the white metal surpassing those of the Comstock lode of Nevada or the Broken Hill of Australia. And yet Bolivia wants the gold standard. It would have been well for the Wolcott-Payne-Stevenson commission to go to South America and stop this fire in the rear before visiting Europe.

Domokos is the latest, and, as we go to press, appears to be the last, Greek defeat that the Powers will tolerate. Turkey's hand has been forced, against the will of the German Emperor, but by the commanding weight of Russia and her allies in this miserable business. The Porte's demands are pronounced extravagant as regards indemnity in money and in territory; Thessaly is not to be restored to Turkey, nor is abolition of the capitulations to be thought of. In short, while Turkey has been allowed to operate up to a certain point as if *in vacuo*, she is now reminded of the artificiality of her "integrity," and that her offensive-defensive is not subject to the laws or chance of war alone. She exists by the grace of Christian fleets for the benefit of non-Moslem bondholders until the convenient hour of partition arrives and the Sick Man is bowed down and out of Europe. For the moment, she stays her victorious arms on the border of what used to be known as Greece proper.

LICENSED TO UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

JONES AS TARIFF-MAKER.

Senator Jones of Nevada is just now the most conspicuous figure in Congress as a tariff-maker. He held the casting vote in the finance committee which reported the pending bill, and made it represent his wishes before he would let it go to the Senate. He expects to have his way again when the bill comes to a vote, and Mr. Aldrich, the Eastern Senator in charge of the measure, virtually admits that his confidence is justifiable. This is not the first appearance of Jones as dictator regarding a tariff bill. He played the same rôle almost exactly seven years ago. The public memory is so short that it would not be strange if most people had forgotten this circumstance, even if they had been familiar with it at the time. In point of fact, however, Jones then exercised his power so secretly that the country did not appreciate what was going on, and it was years afterward that the unwritten history of that period was revealed. It is a chapter which merits careful study just now.

The Fifty-first Congress met at the usual time in December, 1889, and Mr. McKinley, as chairman of the ways and means committee, reported the tariff bill to the House on the 16th of April, 1890. It was passed by the lower branch on the 21st of May, and Mr. Morrill, as chairman of the finance committee, reported it to the Senate on the 18th of June. But there it halted. Weeks passed without any progress being made. Meanwhile the silver question had come to the front, and the Republican Senators from the silver States had made plain their purpose to secure some legislation more favorable to their interests than the Bland-Allison act then on the statute-book. Jones was then, as now, a member of the finance committee, and held the balance of power. By his vote the committee on the 25th of February reported a bill authorizing the Secretary of the Treasury to purchase $4,500,000 worth of silver bullion each month, and to issue Treasury notes in payment therefor. Before this bill came to a vote in the Senate, the House passed, on the 7th of June, a measure of much the same import, which was accepted as a substitute for the Senate bill in the further discussion of the subject. On the 17th of June the House bill was transformed into a free-coinage bill, pure and simple, by a vote of 42 to 25. The matter then went to a conference committee, of which Sherman was chairman on the part of the Senate and Jones another member. The result was the so-called Sherman silver-purchase act, providing for the purchase of 4,500,000 ounces of silver per month. This compromise was accepted by the Republican party vote in both branches, and signed by President Harrison on the 14th of July.

All this lay on the surface, and is a matter of record. Six years later the significance of the movement was made plain. On the 29th of April, 1896, Mr. Sherman had stated in the Senate that the bill called after his name was passed for the purpose of avoiding free coinage. Mr. Teller of Colorado challenged this statement "in the interest of history and truth and exactness," declaring plainly that "there is no foundation whatever for that statement," and explaining what really had occurred. Mr. Harrison was then President, and had said to many Senators that, if a free-coinage bill were sent to him, he should veto it. The Sherman bill, therefore, was not passed for the purpose of avoiding free coinage, but for this reason, to quote Mr. Teller's words:

> "I will, in the interest of history, state why the Sherman bill passed. If it is a party secret, I will give it out, because the statement of the Senator from Ohio has been repeatedly made that he yielded to that measure. The Senator from Ohio believed when he had that bill passed that it would do two things. He believed, first, that it would secure the passage of a tariff bill, and secondly, he believed at that time (he so stated to the Senate at least) that it would help the finances of the country."

Mr. Teller proceeded to say that those silver Senators "who were in favor of a tariff bill were in favor of a free-coinage bill if we could get it, and if we could not get it, we wanted something that would come near to it." They did not believe that the President would sign a tariff bill if it had a free-coinage measure attached, although it might be a tariff bill that suited him. If they should put the free-coinage bill upon the tariff bill, both would be lost, and nothing would be gained for silver. But they used the threat in order to secure other concessions. Said Mr. Teller:

> "But we determined that we would put the free-coinage bill upon the tariff bill, which we knew we could do with the help of the Democrats, who, of course, would vote with us. That we said we would do, and that is why the Senator from Ohio yielded his judgment. That is why the Republicans on this side who had been opposed to the free coinage of silver yielded, not to free coinage, but to what they thought was a lesser evil, what they thought would answer the purpose of satisfying the silver Republicans and secure their votes. Mr. President, that is the unvarnished fact, which more than one Senator on the floor knows as well as I do. We drove our associates in this chamber who were opposed to free coinage into passing a relief bill, as they call it."

Nobody has ever questioned the truthfulness of this declaration that the silver-purchase act of 1890, which had to be repealed three years later, was the price of the McKinley act. Jones, as the representative of the silver Senators, insisted that the Eastern Republicans should "do something for silver," or they should have no tariff bill—and he "drove" them into yielding to his demands. The party has thus learned by experience that it must pay a heavy price when Jones is the tariff-maker, as he now is again.

Speaker Reed is the one man who "had his say" in the House about the pending bill. It was drawn to suit his ideas, and no change was allowed in those ideas. He made up his mind how long the House should be permitted to consider it, and he insisted that the vote should be taken when this time had expired, although only a small part of the measure had then received examination. The Republicans had elected him Speaker, and the knowledge that he could make or break the legislative fortunes of any man when he came to appoint the committees rendered the party subservient to its master. Some weeks—more likely, months—hence the Senate will transmit the Jones tariff to the House, as some weeks ago the House sent the Senate the Reed tariff. The question then will be whether Reed will accept the Jones tariff. Everything now indicates that the Speaker will have to take that or nothing. Of course, he may say that Jones must back down or have no new tariff. But Jones can afford to have no new tariff. He did not support the Republican party last year upon the platform of restoring prosperity by the passage of a tariff bill. He is not "lying awake nights" worrying over the plight of the party if it should call an extra session to pass a tariff bill, and adjourn leaving the Democratic tariff in force because of its inability to send its President a better one. All that now remains is a tug-of-war between the Representative of the Portland district in Maine and the Senator who in this matter stands for the State of Nevada. The Speaker of the House has the advantage in the size of his constituency, for his district has a population of 153,778, against only 45,761 in all Nevada, and gave him 19,329 votes last fall, against only 10,315 for all the Presidential candidates in Nevada, of which McKinley's share was 1,939. But this is a matter in which such considerations do not count. The man who can swing the Senate has quite as much power as the man who controls the House, and Nevada needs for all practical purposes no more inhabitants than are required to go through the forms of electing United States Senators. It is a pity that Jones has not the power of forcing an early decision in the Senate. As the House tariff was to be merely Reed's, the Speaker saw no use in wasting much time over the old forms of consideration. As the Senate tariff is to be Jones's, it would be a great saving of time if the Nevada Senator could make equally short work of routine in his branch of Congress.

THE KEYSTONE OF THE TARIFF.

As long ago as Mr. Cleveland's first Presidential term, we pointed out the fact that wool was the keystone of the protective-tariff system. It was really such when the tariff of 1883 was enacted. In what way it served that purpose was shown by the late John L. Hayes, who was the representative of the woollen

LICENSED TO UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

manufacturers on the tariff commission of the previous year. The crucial question involved at that time was somewhat technical, but it was well understood by the opposing parties, who were then as now the Ohio wool-growers and the New England manufacturers. The latter controlled the Senate at that time and carried their point, but only by the narrowest margin. The final settlement was made in conference committee, where it is said that Senator Morrill, after long debate, took up the ponderous document, held it aloft, and said, as one having authority: "Gentlemen, it is this schedule or no bill; shall I drop it or not?" Thereupon the House members accepted the Senate's wool schedule and the bill became a law.

The Ohio wool-growers, represented by Lawrence, Delano, and Harpster, were intensely dissatisfied with the bill. They at once started a new crusade for tariff changes, and although not many farmers are much interested in wool, they succeeded by diligent effort in identifying themselves with agriculture so that they could threaten New England with complete destruction of the protective system if the farmers were not protected equally with the manufacturers—they being the farmers and the sole judges of what was equality in protection. The latter point was easily settled by the Ohio triumvirate, who said in substance: "Let us make the duties on wool and you may make those on woollens—the public be blanked."

The campaign for new wool duties met with a reverse in the Presidential election of 1884, when the Republican party failed of success for the first time since the war. Mr. Cleveland was chosen, and the Secretary of the Treasury, Mr. Manning, with rare sagacity, discerned that the true issue before the country was the duty on wool, and with this fact in view made that question the leading topic of his first annual report. Not many persons except those immediately concerned in wool-growing or manufacturing saw the point of Mr. Manning's long dissertation and statistics, yet it all became clear when Mr. Harrison's Presidential term began, for the Ohio triumvirate at once reappeared in Washington and demanded with vehemence a new tariff bill, or rather a new tariff on wool. They cared little about other things. The wool-growers and the woollen manufacturers were then united, or rather chained together, in a single association, in such a way that the former could coerce the latter, by the threat of overthrowing the whole protective system, to join them in taking political action. The tariff of 1883 was satisfactory to the Republican party, and was little likely to be overturned except by those who were commonly classed as its friends. It certainly could not have been disturbed at that time by any other party. It was quite beyond the power of the Democrats to assail it successfully.

Lawrence, Delano, and Harpster—or more properly Lawrence dragging Delano and Harpster after him—first bulldozed the woollen manufacturers, and then the committee of ways and means, and then the whole Republican party in Congress, to increase the duties on wool. Of course this required an increase in the duties on woollens. When the other protected classes saw what was going on they rushed to Washington. Hundreds of men and interests that were doing very well (for the decade of 1880-1890 was one of the boom periods in our industrial history) discovered suddenly that they were doing very ill. Tales of poverty and distress, of pauper labor, British gold, and all the other rusty and musty jargon of protectionism were poured into the ears of Congressmen. The McKinley bill was the result. It all hung on the wool schedule. That was the keystone of the arch.

The arch fell, and the party with it, in the autumn of 1890. They fell again in the election of 1892. The Wilson tariff of 1894 was the inevitable consequence, and here again the wool tariff was the keystone of the arch, but this time wool was made free of duties altogether. A new candidate for the first place in tariff legislation had come to the front, namely, sugar. A certain number of Senators formed a combine to make a tariff which, according to their phraseology, "could get forty-three votes." The curious discovery was made that there would be a shortage of four or five votes unless a certain sugar schedule was adopted, and that this shortage consisted of themselves. Accordingly sugar, for the time being, became the keystone of the arch, but, after the bill had passed the Senate, wool resumed its former place, for, having been made free in the bill, Congressman Wilson and President Cleveland, both of whom were at first inclined to kill the bill on account of the iniquitous sugar schedule, decided to let it become a law because wool was on the free list. They argued that with free wool the protective system was doomed, and must fall sooner or later.

Wool held the chief place in the Dingley bill as long as that measure remained in the House. The retroactive clause was adopted to prevent the bringing in of foreign wool, but the only effect was to augment and hasten such importations, 58,000,000 pounds being imported at Boston alone in the month of March against 18,000,000 in March, 1896. The importations of April are believed to have been still larger, and now the Senate committee has reversed the House provisions regarding the different grades of wool and knocked out the retroactive clause altogether. This brings the keystone question down to the present time. Just now the sugar schedule seems to dispute with the wool schedule for the chief position in the arch. Which of the two shall prove best entitled to the place we shall soon see.

RAILWAY PROPERTY IN THE COURTS.

A case decided by the Supreme Court some months since on the subject of transportation rates would have attracted a larger share of public attention had not the interest aroused by the Trans-Missouri decision for the time obscured it. The case is that of Covington and Lexington Turnpike Road Company vs. Sandford; it is reported in U. S. S. C. Opns. No. 5, p. 199. The Trans-Missouri case related to interstate commerce, and under it Congress has absolute power over interstate rates, and may even prevent railroads from making contracts with one another to maintain reasonable rates. The other case relates to ordinary local business within State boundaries, which, of course, cannot be affected by the power given by the Constitution to regulate commerce between the States. The two together present a pretty good view of the legal theory of property invested in the business of transportation held by the Supreme Court as at present constituted.

The Kentucky Legislature in 1890 fixed maximum rates for the turnpike company. The company announced its intention to disobey the law, and Sandford and other farmers living along the road, and accustomed to use it every day, brought a suit to enjoin the company from charging more than the rates allowed by the law. The State courts granted a perpetual injunction. The Supreme Court on appeal held that the general legislative right over tolls was not impaired or restrained by anything in the charter, or any contract with the State, but that a more serious question was presented by an answer which contended that if the law should be obeyed, the road could not earn any dividends, and the company or its stockholders were thus deprived of property without "due process of law." The company insisted that it was earning only about 4 per cent., while extraordinary anticipated expenses would cut the income down to nothing. It also set out facts relating to competition, grades, etc., all tending to show that, under the act, the road would not be able to pay its ordinary expenses. The facts were admitted by the complainants, and the road demurred. The question thus presented, according to the Supreme Court, was whether an unjust and unreasonable tariff could be legal, or whether it was not forbidden by the provision of the fourteenth amendment declaring that no State shall deprive any one of property without due process of law; and they held that it was illegal.

So far the court merely followed a rule repeatedly announced, perhaps most

LICENSED TO UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

tersely in the form, "A power to regulate is not a power to destroy" (Stone vs. Farmers' Loan and Trust Company, 116 U. S. 307), and especially the case of Reagan vs. Farmers' Loan and Trust Company, 154 U. S., 362, in which it was first distinctly laid down, three years ago, that the question whether legislative or commission rates were unjust or unreasonable, was a question for the courts. But the importance of the decision lies in the fact that it undertook to explain elaborately what these principles mean. The court does not decide that the act was unconstitutional merely because the company could not earn more than 4 per cent. It does not say that a corporation operating a public highway is entitled, without reference to the interests of the public, to earn four, or any other given per cent. on its stock. An inquiry must be made as to what is fair and reasonable to both sides. If the establishment of railways, for instance, leads to the disuse of turnpikes, that is not, in itself, a sufficient reason why rates should be put up to an unreasonable point.

"So that the right of the public to use the plaintiffs' turnpike upon payment of such tolls as in view of the nature and value of the service rendered by the company are reasonable, is an element in the general inquiry whether the rates established by law are unjust and unreasonable. That inquiry also involves other considerations—such, for instance, as the reasonable cost of maintaining the road in good condition for public use, and the amount that may have been really and necessarily invested in the enterprise. In short, each case must depend upon its special facts; and when a court, without assuming itself to prescribe rates, is required to determine whether the rates prescribed by the Legislature for a corporation controlling a public highway are, as an entirety, so unjust as to destroy the value of its property for all the purposes for which it was acquired, its duty is to take into consideration the interests both of the public and of the owner of the property, together with all other circumstances that are fairly to be considered in determining whether the Legislature has, under the guise of regulating rates, exceeded its constitutional authority and practically deprived the owner of property without due process of law. What those other circumstances may be it is not necessary now to decide. That can be best done after the parties have made their proofs."

This makes the question whether a State legislative or commission tariff confiscates or does not confiscate depend wholly on the reasonableness of the contracts for transportation made under this tariff. Such a tariff, it was decided by the granger cases, is made under the "police" or general legislative power of the State, and this power must be exercised reasonably. Now contrast this with the Trans-Missouri decision, in which it was held that Congress may, under a constitutional grant of power to "regulate commerce" between the States, make illegal and even criminal any contract between railroads which renders rates stable, even though it be reasonable. That is, Congress, under a limited grant from the States themselves, has a more absolute power over interstate contracts than a State legislature can get over State contracts from the very fountainhead of power in the people themselves, who have conferred upon it locally the whole legislative power of a sovereign. In one case reason is the test to which power has to appeal; in the other, the mere fiat of the law-making power overrides reason itself.

This presents questions of interpretation and construction which will be argued before the Supreme Court next autumn. Meanwhile it is not to be wondered at that the contrast in these decisions should fill the mind of those engaged in the actual business of transportation with wonder. What sort of property is this, they say, which State legislatures must deal with reasonably or not at all, but the reasonable management of which, if it comes within the scope of congressional authority, may be punished by fine and imprisonment as a criminal offence?

THE GREEK CATASTROPHE.

ROME, April 30, 1897.

We have at last the solution of the Greek question, the fitting result of a wanton disturbance of the state of peace, needless in fact and inconsidered in manner beyond all European precedent. Those who, like myself, participated in the demonstration of 1886 on the same frontier by the same caricature of a statesman, Delyannis, and inflated by the same windy temper of an Athenian mob, can better understand the present disaster than they who regard the war which has just collapsed as the outbreak of the righteous indignation of a people. In that year the question was a little more clearly stated, and the pretext for action was less plausible, but *au fond* the case was the same. There was the same demagogue at the head of affairs, and the same necessity for the rehabilitation of him in the favor of the masses, and in both cases there was no real intention, in the outset, of making war, but the hope of alarming the Powers at the prospect of fire being set to the huge mass of inflammable material in the Balkan Peninsula, as the means of extorting advantages for Greece as the price of abstention.

In 1886 I had the privilege of an inside view of the whole affair, and there was then no question that the policy was the childish one of threatening to set fire to the house if the master of it did not come down handsomely. The master, on the contrary, responded by shutting up the child, and the blockade of Peiræus brought the curtain down on the farce. The ministry resigned and Tricoupis came in, after the irregular bands, encouraged by the conviction (industriously spread abroad in the nation) that war was really intended, had been fighting in a desultory way for three days along the frontier, and the regulars had even been involved—all without a declaration of war, and with not even the pretext of the barbarities in Crete so effectively employed to blind the philhellenic public in Europe this time. The Turks had then done nothing to stimulate action, and the whole policy of Delyannis was simple blackmail.

Reading over my letters of that date, I see that, with the change of here and there a word, putting Macedonia for Epirus, etc., they would serve the present crisis perfectly, and the disaster which has now fallen on Greece because the Powers would pay no attention to the Greek threats, was then averted only by the blockade, giving Delyannis the opportunity of evacuating an untenable position under the pretext that he could not make war if the Powers closed the sea to his troops. At that time the Powers received the abuse of the philhellenes because they had prevented Greece from conquering her inheritance; now they will perhaps meet the same condemnation for allowing her to rush into destruction. Then Greece lost ten thousand men, mostly by the exposure and diseases due to the want of preparation for a campaign which was never intended and in no wise prepared, and created a debt of 200,000,000 of drachmæ in sham preparations which were intended only to give color to the threat of setting fire to the Balkans. The present is the third time that the Greek Government had played the same game. The first occasion was after the Russo-Bulgaro-Turkish war, and the Powers made some concession; the second I have already spoken of, when the only reply was the blockade; and now the Greeks were simple-minded enough to suppose that the game could be successfully played for the third time. The policy imposed on the Powers was to remove all the outlying combustibles and let the Greek Government have its way, because in no other manner was the necessary lesson to be taught.

Having had the opportunity of taking an effective part in the efforts to extinguish the conflagration so unscrupulously kindled by Delyannis in 1886, and having, as I thought, so rendered Greece a service, because the orders given to the Turkish commander-in-chief had been to march directly on Athens if the attacks on the frontier continued another day, imagine my feelings—rather of amusement than of annoyance—at being told by the patriots in Athens that I had aided to prevent the Greeks from going to Constantinople, and caused them to lose their great opportunity! It was impossible to convince them that they were utterly unprepared for war—that the Turks would find no serious obstacle to a march on Athens—they were convinced that "any Greek was equal to any ten Turks," that the Greek army would have had only a triumphant march before them, and that the Turkish Empire would have faded away for ever. I had many times said to my Greek friends, "Why do you not send your war-ships to sea to manœuvre and practise with their guns? Why do you not put the army through some practical manœuvres in the field and drill them to marching as other countries do?" The only reply was that it was not necessary—the Greeks were so clever that they would do all these things without study; they would come naturally, and the practice cost too much money. Even Tricoupis, who was by no means ignorant of the deficiencies of the Greeks, was under the same delusion as to the superiority over the Turk. He said, "We could not fight against European troops, but, as we have only to meet the Turks, our soldiers are well enough organized for that."

With this conviction widely spread through the nation, it was easy to anticipate the consequences of Delyannis's efforts to stimu-

LICENSED TO UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

late public feeling to the point of making war inevitable, and thus enabling him to say to the Powers that the excitement was such that the Government could no longer control it, and that not only the ministry but the throne would be swept away by the public indignation, if he recoiled without some substantial concession to content Greek patriotism for the sacrifices made. Perhaps he really believed that the Powers were so ill-informed that they mistook the undisciplined Greek masses for an efficient army, and that they could possibly apprehend the contingency of a successful raid of the Greek troops into Macedonia, and a general mêlée, in which they might become entitled to a share in the proceeds. In any case, though he was able to raise the war feeling, he was unable to control it, and, when the movement had escaped him and war became inevitable, he tried another shallow expedient—that of making war unofficially by means of the irregular bands of the Ethnike Hetairia, which were to invade Macedonia, and, having cut the roads and telegraphs everywhere, were to hold the passes for the regulars to follow up their successes. If the positions were taken, and could be held, then war would be declared; if not, and if the Turkish army attempted to punish official Greece for the invasion, then Greece would disclaim responsibility for the war, on the ground that it had not been made by the Government, but by insurgents and volunteers, for whose action the Government did not recognize the responsibility. And, again, Delyannis might have been simple-minded enough to believe that this excuse would weigh with the Powers, whose agents were watching the transparent manœuvres; but no man in the full possession of his reason could have so deluded himself as to suppose that this pretext would not be seen through.

The ultimate consequences of the war are most disastrous to Greece. It is not only as a great defeat that the nation must regard it, but as a defeated trick which puts Greece out of the running for the next fifty years in the race with the other nationalities of the Balkans, leaves her bankrupt in credit, military reputation, and prestige, and gives the front place to the Bulgarians, who have already established their reputation for thrift and the solid qualities which are the true roots of national prosperity, and who are firmly established in European consideration as a progressive people. By it Macedonia is definitively lost to the Greeks, and Turkey has gained a renewal of her character as a military power, not merely as having defeated the Greeks, but as having shown that for mobilization and military administration and as a military power, useful to her friends and not to be neglected as an enemy, she maintains her old distinction. The Greeks have shown that, though they are personally brave enough, they have not the more important and really indispensable qualities of patience, common-sense, and docility; that their national vainglory had eaten up all their civic virtue, and that, though they have not developed in modern times another Themistocles or Leonidas, they have a great abundance of Cleons.

Superficial thinkers have sought to establish a comparison between Greece and Piedmont, the basis of the Italian kingdom; the comparison does not hold. Piedmont made it her first care to find points of agreement and alliance with those of the European Powers whose interests agreed with her own, then to organize her finances and to form a small army which should be able to take place among the soldiers of the great Powers on equal terms, and then, and only then, made her movement for the liberation of Italy. The Greek army, on the occasions prior to the present when it was sent to the frontier, was utterly inefficient. I remember in one instance that half the men fell out, foot-sore, on the first day's march, and that the artillery broke down completely before reaching the frontier, every gun being dismounted. During the Russo-Turkish war of 1878 there was a convention between King George and the Czar that if, by a certain date, the Greek army should pass the frontier, Greece should be considered in the conditions of peace. On the given date not a single battalion was ready to pass the frontier, and the Czar gave the King three months more; at the end of these there was still nothing ready, and, when the Congress assembled, the ministry hurried a few battalions over the frontier, and, after two or three days, these were compelled by hunger to return, having forgotten the commissariat. And all these blunders have taught the Greeks nothing except to increase the severity of the conscription and the numbers of an ill-organized army, where discipline and compactness were the most important requisites. W. J. S.

THE OPENING OF THE PICTURE SEASON.

LONDON, April 25, 1897.

The season of pictures cannot be said to have opened brilliantly. Though I have yet to see the two Salons in Paris, I have heard the French critic's wail over their commonplace—his lament that while so many thousand men and women can paint nowadays, there are so few who ought to be painting: the high average of technical excellence attained, to absolutely no artistic purpose, in the end becomes depressing, dispiriting. Now, in England the same complaint can scarcely be made. The many cannot paint; but, what is worse, they do, so that it is the low level with which the innumerable painters are content that proves so discouraging on our side of the Channel.

This is no very novel state of affairs, to be sure. But, somehow, one seems to feel it more keenly that even at the New Gallery Exhibition, which has just held its private view, the same criticism is applicable. Here is a gallery started a very few years since to succeed the old Grosvenor, which, after all, many as may have been the follies it was popularly supposed to countenance, did have a definite reason for its existence, and, in its rather short career, did develop a definite policy. It was intended to serve as headquarters for the English independents or secessionists who happened, at the time of its founding, to be the followers of pre-Raphaelitism. It was to give shelter, really, to whatever, for one reason or another, could not find favor at the Academy. The New Gallery was thought to have taken over these traditions; otherwise there would have been no need for another big exhibition hall in London, already more than amply stocked, where, besides, so little work worth exhibiting is produced. For a year or two, Sir Edward Burne-Jones and his school made a brave enough showing to lend a special character to the Gallery. Sir Edward Burne-Jones himself has not failed—he is still well in evidence; but the school has dwindled and weakened until any display it may attempt is passed unnoted. There are to-day a few men unrecognized at Burlington House who could bring to the exhibition a greater distinction than it even yet has boasted; but the policy of directors, or management, now seems to be to gather together a collection that will resemble a lesser Academy as closely as possible. Academicians are the prominent contributors, and it stands to reason that Academicians, as a rule, will reserve their principal work for their own walls. If, after the other usual exhibitors at the Academy are provided for, space is left for any notable outsiders, these seem to be selected from the rapidly growing ranks of amateurs—titled by preference.

Artists, unfortunately, are but human, and most of them depend upon art for their daily bread and butter. The Old Master, thanks to the more favorable conditions prevailing in his time, could play the salesman without disguise. But the modern painter, whose work really is not wanted, and who must therefore create the demand for it, simply cannot afford the same independence. His patron is not the church, not the state, not the guild or corporation—though why it should not be is among the mysteries of the civilization of which we are so proud; his hope, rather, lies, on the one hand, in the brand-new millionaire who has had no ancestors to collect his pictures for him, and, on the other, in the amateur whose whims and fancies, in consequence, are not to be disregarded. If it amuses the ambitious amateur to exhibit with professionals, why should the amusement be denied him? The wish is one so easily gratified. As a result, we have the curious spectacle in London of the second of the most important exhibitions of the year amiably yielding itself to the inroads of the dilettante.

I do not think I exaggerate in my description of the present Academical and amateurish aspect of the New Gallery. I have looked carefully and conscientiously for work of merit or note that would not be as apt to claim admission at the Academy—to open only a week later—and I find nothing but Sir Edward Burne-Jones's large "Pilgrim of Love," which, to be honest, is not in itself of sufficient beauty or charm to redeem the exhibition from dulness. Two lines from Swinburne have served as inspiration:

"Love that is first and last of all things made,
The light that moving has man's life for shade."

The meaning is not over-clearly illustrated by a sad winged Love, with the ungainly feet and ankles too many of Sir Edward Burne-Jones's angels and maidens reveal below their draperies, leading a distorted, ill-shapen Pilgrim among symbolic brambles and allegoric flights of birds across a wide, desolate, blue-gray landscape. It is not to be ranked with the finest conceptions of the painter; the details are clumsy and tedious in their symbolism; the weakness of drawing is more than usually apparent in the figures. But the scheme of color is not without effectiveness, not without a poetic melancholy, and the composition, as a whole, has a decorative value that would tell better in more appropriate and congenial surroundings.

LICENSED TO UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

Of course, there are other paintings that interest one. It would be tragic, indeed, were the New Gallery entirely barren of good work. But to turn to the portraits is to discover that it is an Academician, Mr. Sargent, who contributes the strongest and most striking. His "Mrs. George Swinton" is a characteristic full-length of a lady, in all the splendor of white evening dress and regal jewels, standing simply, with one hand on a chair, the other resting on her hip, keeping her place well within the frame, superbly drawn and superbly painted; if anything, really, her silken draperies are too well painted, for there are times when one wonders if Mr. Sargent does not run the risk of becoming, like his master, M. Carolus-Duran, unduly preoccupied with the gorgeousness of the gowns worn by his sitters. Personally, I like better a quieter little study he shows of a lady singing by lamplight, since in this he has thought less of the gown, admirably rendered as it is, for sheer delight in the beautiful golden glow thrown upon the animated face by the lamp and the elegant poise of the uplifted head. Another portrait that would hold its own anywhere is by Mr. Arthur Melville, the strongest of the little group known as the Glasgow men. I should say that study of Velasquez and Whistler had suggested the dignified arrangement and quiet color—the man in brown knickerbockers facing one from the long narrow canvas, the brownish gray background but vaguely indicated. However, to say this is not to find fault; under what better masters could he have studied? Portraits there are, too, by Mr. Watts and Mr. Boughton and Mr. Shannon; the first two Academicians, the third an associate; and by Mr. Tuke, who, it is generally believed, will not have to wait much longer for admission into the fold. Probably all four will be represented to greater advantage at the Academy.

However, it is in landscape that English painters at present are most proficient. In a curious, roundabout fashion they seem at last to have arrived at a knowledge of their own distinguished predecessors, whom for so long they had forgotten, and, by way of the French and Dutch Romanticists, to have endeavored to return to the traditions of Constable and Bonington, Crome and Cotman. The garish would-be realism that for years prevailed is gradually giving way to a nobler convention, and if many of the attempts made to realize it are scarcely crowned with success, at least the failures are not so offensive as the landscape recently in vogue in all English galleries and still to a large extent at the Academy and the Institute. Such men as Mr. Leslie Thomson, Mr. Wither, Mr. Edward Stott, Mr. Bernard Priestman, Mr. Lemon, Mr. Tomson, Mr. Peppercorn have had their eyes opened to the romance that is everywhere lurking in nature, and they are doing what they can to open the eyes of others. They are not very original, perhaps, in either their attitude or their method. But for Corot and Mauve, Courbet and Pointelin, they might never have concerned themselves with just the same motives or resolved upon just the same mode of expression. Mr. Stott alone, so far, gives signs of a distinct personality. But the work of all is usually pleasant and promising, often uncommonly good, and forms one of the most agreeable features at the New Gallery.

For the rest, the visitor may find what consolation he can in the names of titled contributors sprinkled gayly through the catalogue, in the last brave efforts to keep alive the gospel of pre-Raphaelitism, in the smug prettiness dear to the British sentimentalist in paint. Humors the exhibition might be found to have, but for its elements of pathos, even tragedy—not peculiar to the New Gallery alone, however—of which one cannot remain unconscious. One remembers what painters, and those not always the greatest, could accomplish when they had the churches of Italy or the guild-halls of Holland to decorate with their pictures of saints or portraits of men. In the modern gallery one sees to what straits they are reduced when they manufacture the masterpiece for no better end than to send it to an exhibition in pursuit of purchasers.

N. N.

Correspondence.

A NEW PARTY AND A NEW NAME.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: As you have well shown in recent issues of the *Nation*, the most prominent feature in the present political aspect of this country is the loosening of old party ties and a marked tendency towards the disintegration of existing political parties. The great mass of conservative business people of the country, who have been for some years harassed by political disquietude, and are eagerly yearning for peace, stand bewildered between the wild fantasies of Bryanism and Populism on the one hand and the crazy infatuation of protection on the other. The people who placed the Republican party in control of the government last November were promised bread and are getting stones. The only explanation that a plain citizen can imagine for the strangely suicidal policy being pursued by the Republican leaders is the assumption that they are paying, under compulsion, political debts by making a show of passing a Dingley bill and by sending a futile free-silver commission to Europe.

But what is the promise for the future? What will be the political situation four years hence? Will the country again be forced to choose between two wild and destructive extremes of governmental policy, with the same pitiable resort of choosing what appears to be the lesser of two desperate evils? That would be unendurable. Mr. Cleveland's suggestion of the opportuneness for making the Palmer-Buckner platform a common rallying-ground for all the more conservative elements in both the old parties appears to be most timely. But there is reason for fear that the name Democrat, in any connection, will be distasteful to most Republicans, as would the latter to many Democrats. It would seem to be a proper time for a new party name and a new rallying cry. I modestly suggest "the National Conservative Party" for a name, and "Reform—currency, tariff, and civil service," as the motto.—Respectfully,

T. G. Dabney.

Clarksdale, Miss., May 10, 1897.

FEDERAL INCORPORATIONS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: If we are to have a new party, of a kind to impress itself upon the future history of our country, as some of your correspondents say we should, we must have an issue, or issues, of wider scope than the tariff or the reformation of our finances, supremely important as these are. There must be something more aggressive around which the people can rally. We can hardly say, "Down with bossism," because it is questionable if that principle can be eliminated (Goldwin Smith, in the current issue of the *North American Review*, says it cannot) from our present system of government. It would be appropriate for Congress, with a power over interstate commerce that has been exercised only in a limited degree, to require corporations doing an interstate commerce business to act under federal charters. Chief Justice Marshall, in 1819, in McCulloch vs. Maryland, laid down the rule that Congress has power to create a corporation whenever to do so is an appropriate measure to carry into execution its enumerated powers. Congress, so far, with its indirect relations to corporations that do an interstate business, those of transportation and trade, has failed to regulate interstate commerce in a way that satisfies either corporations themselves or the public. If it should demand, in the execution of this one of its enumerated powers, that such corporations should act under charters issued by itself, or according to its statute, it would, besides making easier of accomplishment its direct object, cleanse our national life of its greatest source of political corruption—namely, the blackmail of the largest corporations by State Legislatures, through the State bosses.

J. C. Welch.

Brooklyn, May 15, 1897.

PENNSYLVANIA AGAIN.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Mr. Wanamaker's recent letter to the Business Men's League, declining its request that he be a candidate for the nomination for State Treasurer, is now a part of the ancient political literature of this commonwealth, but it cannot be without interest to all who are watching the workings of events as they tend towards the contest for Congress next year. He says the State Treasury carries a constant balance of many millions of idle money on deposit in selected banks—in August, 1893, it reached over $9,000,000—while public schools and State charities are suffering for unpaid appropriations, and that this has been going on ever since the war and ought to be stopped. And he might have said the same thing of the city of Philadelphia, if he had thought it worth while to be critical. And he might also have ventured the remark that he and his associates in the Republican League of Business Men have known it all the time, and that some of them have seats in some of the boards of the banks where the deposits are kept. But the letter is directed at Senator Quay's control of the State Government and not at David Martin's control of the city of Philadelphia, and herein lies its significance. The chance of chances will come next year when a Governor, Lieutenant-Governor, and Secretary of Internal Affairs are to be elected, besides the Congressmen and the Legislature which will elect Quay's successor to the United States Senate. There are great possibilities in that situation, far beyond anything offered by the

LICENSED TO UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

present conditions. So Quay will get his Treasurer and Auditor-General into office for their respective terms, and will get his "reform" bills through the present Legislature if he wants to; and next year he will turn Sunday-school superintendent himself.

This, then, is the situation. The people of this great commonwealth are expected to continue the operation of the State Treasury as an adjunct of the Republican State executive committee under Senator Quay's control until next year's elections open the way to "harmony" by bringing all the important offices into the deal. And it is a situation of which the sound-money Democrats alone can take any advantage. The silverites, under Black and Sibley and Kerr and Garman, can offer nothing, for they have nothing to offer. They cannot deliver anything if they do offer it. They haven't even the wind which last year raised a little dust and obscured their meagre numbers and weak position. Their leaders are nondescript, and their followers are the disappointed rank and file of a once splendid party whose principles they supported with honest zeal. If the sound-money Democracy will put into the present canvass such a ticket as it alone can nominate, proclaim its determination to abolish the outrageous corruption fund which is the subject of Mr. Wanamaker's pretended anxiety, reaffirm the Allentown and Indianapolis platforms, and make a vigorous campaign during this year and next, it will draw to its support all of the good elements in all the parties—and these are a majority.

B. C. P.

MEDIA, May 18, 1897.

THE COST OF WITHDRAWING THE GREENBACKS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In your article on "Delay of Currency Reform," you make what seems to me the dangerous admission that the withdrawal of the greenbacks would put upon the country an interest charge of $12,000,000 a year. The charge would be much less.

I speak of the greenbacks only; for the Sherman notes will be gradually withdrawn out of the silver already on hand. The former amount at face to $346,600,000. Of this sum at least $16,600,000 must, by this time, be lost or destroyed, leaving $330,000,000. The cash now in the Treasury, over and above all demand liabilities, is at least $180,000,000, and as no one is in favor of further deficits, it is not going to fall below this figure. Hence, withdrawing the greenbacks involves only $150,000,000 of additional bond issue, or a yearly charge of $4,500,000 a year at the outside. The Secretary of the Treasury might make such an issue under existing laws, and, having then as many gold dollars in the Treasury as there are greenbacks outstanding, the latter would be as harmless as the silver certificates, of which each is represented by one or more coins in the vaults.

At any rate, if the people are made to understand clearly that it is a question of less than $4,500,000 a year, and not of $12,000,000, they will be much more open to approach the problem calmly.

Truly yours, L. N. D.

LOUISVILLE, KY., May 9, 1897.

[We took the figures ($12,000,000 per year) from Prof. Dunbar, who did not pretend to accuracy, but rather overstated the fact by way of abundant caution. His argument was that, even if the saving in interest were as much as $12,000,000, that would be trivial in comparison with the losses which the people suffer in their business from the alternate chills and fever of a disordered currency.—ED. NATION.]

THE POPE OF 'THE RING AND THE BOOK.'

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: A writer in the 'Encyclopædia Britannica' says of Innocent XI.: "The fine moral character of Innocent has been sketched with much artistic power, as well as *with historical fidelity*, by Mr. Robert Browning in 'The Ring and the Book.'" Now this is in direct contradiction to every statement in the poem. In the first book, lines 1221-2, the poet says:

"Pope Innocent, the Twelfth,
Simple, sagacious, mild, yet resolute."

The story of the poem is included in the pontificate of Innocent XII., 1691-1700, while Innocent XI. died in 1689. The Pope who is represented as speaking in "The Pope" in 'The Ring and the Book,' says (lines 24, 25):

"Eight hundred years exact, before the year
I was made Pope, men made Formosus Pope."

Now Formosus was made Pope in 891. Eight hundred years added would bring us to 1691, the year when history states that Innocent XII. became Pope. Innocent XI. became Pope in 1676.

Again, the Pope, in the poem ("The Pope," 10, 11) says:

"And so I have the papacy complete
From Peter first to Alexander last."

Innocent XI. could not have said that, because he succeeded Clement X., and was himself succeeded by Alexander VIII. But this Alexander VIII. was the immediate predecessor of Innocent XII.

Again, Innocent XI. died at the age of seventy-eight, but the Pope of the poem speaks of himself (317, 318) as one

"weighed now
By twice eight years beyond the seven times ten."

Innocent XII. was born in 1615, so his age at the time he speaks (viz., 1698) was actually eighty-three, almost the age given in the poem.

The name of Innocent XI., before he was Pope, was Odeschalchi, while the name of the Pope in the poem is Pignatelli—Innocent XII. had borne that name.

These are only a few facts out of many to show that Robert Browning, in 'The Ring and the Book,' meant to describe Innocent XII., and nobody else. Mr. Berdoe, in his 'Browning Encyclopædia,' accepts the statement of the writer in the 'Britannica' as if somehow it must be correct, whether it seemed so or not to a reader of the poem. He makes the assertion that the character of Innocent XI. "certainly agrees better with the story told by the poet than does the latter." But if one will read the account of Innocent XII. in the 'Encyclopædia Britannica,' he will find that that Pope was equal if not superior in character to Innocent XI. In it Innocent XII. is described as "this benevolent, self-abnegating, and pious Pope." Nothing better is said of Innocent XI. Mr. Browning was not required to confound the character of the one Pope with the time and circumstances of the other. But, even if he had done so, the writer of the 'Britannica' article is as much mistaken as ever. He speaks of the "historical fidelity" of the poet's description, when, in fact, it is all wrong if the poet is speaking of Innocent XI.

FRANCIS B. HORNBROOKE.

NEWTON, MASS.

"LIFTING" EXTRAORDINARY.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Interest in a certain subject has been the occasion of my receiving, within the last couple of years, three books, each of which purports to be a different work, written by a different author; but, on examination, save for the difference in language, they prove to be substantially identical, not only in treatment but in wording.

In 1680, "À Paris," was published a little book entitled, 'Traitte historique des plus belles bibliotheques de l'Europe. . . . Avec une Methode pour dresser une bibliotheque. Par le Sieur Le Gallois.' (12°, pp. xii + 210.) Beginning with Adam, the author treats of the libraries of the Hebrews, Chaldeans, Egyptians, Greeks, and Romans, and of the countries of the Europe of his own day. In the preface ("Avis au lecteur") the author says: "J'avouë que j'ay esté aydé de quelques personnes intelligentes dans ces matieres là, et de quelques Memoires qui m'ont esté communiquez; mais il vous doit peu importer, mon cher Lecteur d'où j'aye pris tout ce que j'ay dit dans mon Livre, . . ." Nevertheless it may interest some who are not readers of Le Sieur Le Gallois to know that his book is in reality a translation, somewhat abridged, of Johannes Lomeier's 'De Bibliothecis' (Zutphen, 1669). The following extracts will serve to illustrate the extent of the indebtedness:

Lomeier, p. 9 (ed. 1705):

"Sethus Adami filius primus fuisse legitur, qui voluerit *Mansuras rudibus voces signare figuris*. Cum enim ex patre audivisset, universalem instare rerum interitum, alterum ex aqua, alterum vero ex igni; ne artium principia perirent, ea duabus columnis, uni lapideae, quae ab aquis, lateritiae alteri, quae ab incendio tuta esset, incidere voluit. Neque vanam hanc esse traditionem facit Josephi tum auctoritas, tum ἀντοψία, quippe unam harum columnarum, suo adhuc tempore, in Syria extitisse testatur *Antiq. lib. I., Cap. 3.*"

Le Gallois, p. 6:

"Il est vray que Joseph en ses Antiquitez rapporte que parce que Seth Fils d'Adam avoit appris de son Pere que le monde devoit perir deux fois, l'une par eau, et l'autre par le feu, *il fit faire* deux Colonnes, sur chacune desquelles il grava tout ce qu'il sçavoit, de peur que le monde n'en fût privé après ces deux destructions universelles. Et cet Historien ajoûte que ce fût pourquoy Seth voulut que l'une de ces deux Colonnes fût de pierre, afin qu'elle resistât à l'eau, et que l'autre fût de brique, afin que le violence du feu ne pouvant rien contre une matiere si dure et si solide les choses qui y étoient gravées se conservassent eternallement."

Le Gallois had put this volume of library mythology before French readers with such success that in 1739 there appeared in London an *exact translation* of his work under the title: 'A Critical and Historical Account of all the Celebrated Libraries in Foreign Countries, as well Ancient as Modern. With General Reflections upon the Choice of Books, and the Method of Furnishing Li-

LICENSED TO UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

braries. . . . By a Gentleman of the Temple." (12° pp. x + 206.) Second edition, 1740. A reprint (in a limited edition of twenty copies only) of the first edition was made by Sir Thomas Phillipps, in 1826. The English work is supplied with a preface and a dedication: "To the Right Honorable Richard, Earl of Anglesey"—not to be found in its original. It also omits the page (118) which the latter has "Des Bibliotheques d'Angleterre," the preface stating that "should it [the book] meet with the Approbation of the Publick, the Author will proceed with the Libraries of these Kingdoms." As the French "Avis au lecteur" is omitted, no mention is made of the "quelques Memoires," or any other source of information. Compare, however, the following extracts from each:

Le Gallois, p. 141:

"L'Histoire rapporte qu' Antoine Brieus et Laurens de Cremone allerent par ordre de Gregoire treizième en ce Royaume, pour y voir cette fameuse Bibliotheque [du Monastere de Ste. Croix sur le Mont d'Amara en Ethiopie] divisée en trois parties, qui toutes trois, à ce qu'on dit, contiennent dix millions cent mille volumes tous écrits en beau parchemin, et conservés des estuits de soye. On dit de plus que cette Bibliotheque doit son commencement à la Reine de Saba qui alla voir Salomon, dont elle receut en present une quantité de Livres, particulierement ceux d'Enoch touchant les Elemens, et autres matieres Philosophiques."

'A Critical and Historical Account,' p. 177:

"History informs us, that Anthony Brieus and Lawrence of Cremona were sent by Gregory XIII. into that Kingdom, to see that famous Collection, which is divided into three Parts, containing together ten Millions and an hundred Thousand Volumes, all wrote upon fine Parchment, and kept in silk Cases. We are told besides, that it owes its Original to the Queen of Sheba, who visited Solomon, from whom she received a Present of a great many Books, particularly those of Enoch upon the Elements, and other Philosophical Subjects. . . . "

"A la verité tout cela parroist incroyable," but that a similar case of "wholesale absorption" should happen in the year of grace 1890, seems still more incredible. In that year appeared 'A Manual of Bibliography, . . . By Walter Thomas Rodgers, F.R.S., Lit. London: H. Grevel & Co.,' of which the preface states, "The following work compiled from various sources, English and foreign, is offered," etc. The exact state of the case is that the work is a *literal translation* of the 'Bibliografia di Giuseppe Ottino' (Milan: Hoepli, 1885, second edition, 1892). The compiler has, however, rejected Ottino's illustrations for those of Bouchot's 'Le Livre.' From page 1 to 38 the English work is a good translation of the Italian, with the occasional omission or amplification of a sentence. Then there is an addition introduced as follows: "The abbreviations given are by no means half of those used, but have been selected from booksellers' catalogues which have passed through the compiler's hands within the last six months." The abbreviations are the four lists (Ital., French, Ger., Eng.) given by Ottino arranged as one alphabet! After this the translation proceeds as before to the end of the book. The preface, however, is original! "The following work, compiled from various sources, English and foreign, is offered as an introductory guide to the knowledge of books. It does not pretend to be a complete summary of that vast subject, but merely a key to open other works. Should it awaken in the reader a desire to know more of those friends of man, the aim of the compiler will have been accomplished."

Can we suppose the person who has so attempted to deceive the public to be ignorant of the fact that, with the facilities of to-day for intercommunication, no great length of time could elapse without the origin of the work becoming known?

FREDERICK J. TEGGART.

STANFORD UNIVERSITY P. O., CALIFORNIA, May 5, 1897.

Notes.

BESIDES Edward Bellamy's 'Equality,' D. Appleton & Co.'s May announcements include 'Woman and the Republic: A Survey of the Woman Suffrage Movement in the United States,' by Helen Kendrick Johnson; 'The Private Life of the Queen,' by a member of the royal household; 'The Outgoing Turk,' by H. C. Thomson; 'Some Unrecognized Laws of Nature,' an inquiry into the causes of physical phenomena, by Ignatius Singer and Lewis H. Berens; 'The Story of Germ Life,' by Prof. H. W. Conn; 'Familiar Features of the Wayside,' by F. Schuyler Mathews; 'Beauty and Art,' by Adam Heaton; and a new story, 'Wayside Courtships,' by Hamlin Garland, whose publishers in a special sense Messrs. Appleton now become.

The Macmillan Co. is about to publish 'The Boston Browning Society Papers, 1886-1897,' from the pens of T. W. Higginson, Prof. Royce, Rev. Charles G. Ames, W. J. Rolfe, and other well-known writers.

Henry Holt & Co. have nearly ready 'Svengali's Diary'; also, 'Sketches in Lavender, Blue, and Green,' by Jerome K. Jerome.

'Medical Climatology,' by Dr. S. Edwin Solly, late President of the American Climatological Association, is in the press of Lea Brothers & Co., Philadelphia.

George Routledge & Sons anticipate the diamond jubilee with a 'Life of Her Majesty, Queen Victoria, 1819-1897,' by G. Barnett Smith, who also supplies 'Principal Events in the Queen's Reign, Arranged in Chronological Order'; and with 'National Progress during the Queen's Reign, 1837-1897,' by Michael J. Mulhall. They announce, further, 'Nansen and the Frozen North,' by John Black, and 'The Romance of War, or the Highlanders in Spain,' by James Grant.

Speaker Reed furnishes an introduction, and President McKinley a history of tariff legislation 1812-1896, to the works of Henry Clay just about to be issued by the Henry Clay Publishing Co., 35 Nassau Street, New York, in seven octavo volumes, illustrated.

The Century Co. have in preparation a new edition, with an additional chapter, of 'The Autobiography of Joseph Jefferson,' and 'The Scholar and the State,' essays by Bishop Potter.

'Wild Norway,' by Abel Chapman, and 'The Sportsman in Ireland,' by "Cosmopolite" (Vol. III. of "The Sportsman's Library"), are in the press of Edward Arnold.

The next publication of the Caxton Club of Chicago will be Derby's 'Phœnixiana,' edited by John Vance Cheney, in two volumes, 12mo, with an etched portrait of Captain Derby on India paper, by W. H. M. Bicknell after the painting by F. B. Carpenter, and an appendix of several pieces, together with ten humorous pen-and-ink sketches by the author, never before published. Advance subscriptions to the 150 copies for sale should be made to the club's Treasurer, Mr. George Higginson, jr.

D. C. Heath & Co., Boston, have in press 'First Spanish Readings,' by Prof. J. E. Matzke, of Stanford University.

J. Mesinas of Lima, Peru, has just issued the "parte preliminar" of a work entitled 'Geografia Comercial de la América del Sur,' by Carlos B. Cisneros, Secretary of the Geographical Society of Lima, and Rómulo E. Garcia. The work will consist of twelve volumes, to issue at regular intervals, the price being one *sol* each volume, or £1 for the entire set. It is intended to serve as a guide to the importer, merchant, and commercial traveller, giving statistics as to trade and commerce, leading productions, routes of communication, etc., respecting all points of any considerable importance in South America. Separate maps of all the South American states will accompany the work.

The first instalment of a new illustrated history of the French Revolution, by the Danish scholar Bering-Liisberg, is announced in the Copenhagen papers. While this work will probably not pretend to contribute new material, its numerous illustrations, many of them reproductions of contemporary paintings, will give it an interest beyond the rather narrow limits of the Danish reading public.

The hundredth anniversary of the birth of the Danish poet Henrik Hertz is to be celebrated in Copenhagen by the publication of a selection of his dramas, to consist of twenty-one of the comedies and tragedies that have retained their popularity to the present day. Although in this country Hertz is known almost exclusively by his charming romantic play "King René's Daughter," which has twice been translated into English, in Denmark his tragedy "Svend Dyrings Huus," and his comedy "Sparekassen" (The Savings-Bank)—the latter revived at the Royal Theatre three years ago—are regarded inferior in interest only to his romance. Hertz was above all a Copenhagener. In Copenhagen he was born and lived and died, for Copenhagen he wrote, and by Copenhagen he is remembered and loved as few writers of a past generation. In spite of his importance for the Danish drama, no biography of Hertz exists; the most satisfactory substitute being the selection of letters published two years ago. It would be a fitting further celebration of his centennial were some admirer among the half-dozen Danish critics to present us with an outline of his life and works, some portions of which at least would undoubtedly find interested readers on this side of the Atlantic.

'Madagascar before the Conquest,' by the Rev. James Sibree (Macmillan), is not likely to tempt the general public, if for no other reason because it is far too full of hopelessly long Malagasy names to be easy or pleasant reading. The different chapters, of varying interest, are loosely strung together, furnishing a mass of miscellaneous information rather than a complete picture of any sort. The volume must be meant for those only who, knowing a good deal about Madagascar already, wish to pick up some additional crumbs of solid fact, which the author is entirely competent to offer, as he is a missionary of more than thirty years' standing who has already written two books about the island.

LICENSED TO UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

One of the most striking tributes to Wagner's poetic genius lies in the fact that every year adds a book or two to the list of those which are concerned with the dramatic and poetic side of his operas alone. Miss Constance Maud, who a year or two ago wrote a book entitled 'Wagner's Heroes,' has now followed this up with a companion volume entitled 'Wagner's Heroines' (Edward Arnold). It is concerned, however, only with *Brunhilda*, *Senta*, and *Isolda*, the others—*Elsa*, *Eva*, *Elizabeth*, and *Kundry*—having been sufficiently dwelt on in the earlier volume. It is not quite obvious why the author changes Brünnhilde and Isolde to Brunhilda and Isolda, since newspaper critics and lovers of Wagner, in speaking of his heroines, always use the names as he wrote them. Apart from this peculiarity there is little fault to find with Miss Maud's book, which is written in a way that will make it entertaining to those to whom it is dedicated—"all children, big and little, who liked 'Wagner's Heroes.'"

When the two volumes of Hans von Bülow's 'Early Correspondence' appeared in Germany, a few years ago, they were noticed in these columns at considerable length. Brief mention will therefore suffice of the English version by Miss Constance Bache, which the Appletons have issued in one volume. Miss Bache, who is a most proficient and idiomatic translator, has wisely omitted those of the 240 letters which were likely to interest Bülow's countrymen only, or which his widow might as well have omitted altogether. The Bülow literature is not extensive, and nowhere else is that remarkable pianist, pedagogue, and conductor so interestingly depicted as in these letters. Miss Bache thinks that Bülow has been, with the exception of Wagner, the "best-abused" musician of our time, but this is hardly correct, as that amiable and persuasive missionary for Wagner, Franz Liszt, came in for much harder blows. Nor is it correct to speak of "the *Schimpfwörterbücher* that Wagner's enemies published about him," since these collections of abusive epithets were gathered by his friends with humorous intent and as warning examples.

Thomas Tapper, author of 'Chats with Music Students' and 'The Music Life and How to Succeed in It,' has issued a third volume of short essays entitled 'Music Talks with Children' (Philadelphia: Theodore Presser). Mr. Tapper holds that "our failure to present music to the young in a manner that interests and holds them is due not so much to the fact that music is too difficult for children, but because the children themselves are too difficult for us." He believes that "the teacher's knowledge is not a hammer, it is a light." A good deal of light is shed by these chats, which may be cordially commended to all teachers, especially those who wonder why they do not succeed in interesting their pupils in their lessons. The papers entitled "Listening" and "Thinking in Tones" will open up to them new ways of approaching the minds of children and making them comprehend and therefore love good music. Of the other twenty-three "chats" special mention is due to 'Music in School,' which shows in a novel way that music is far from being a mere pastime, but has as great value as any other study in training the intellectual faculties.

A pamphlet of thirty-seven pages, without name of author or publisher (though that of the former, a native Christian, is well known), comes to us from Tokio, entitled 'How the "Social Evil" is Regulated in Japan.' The little brochure is packed full of historical, legal, and social information, and throws a peculiar tint of light upon "the real Japan." The author, who handles statistics with care, thinks there are 500,000 known prostitutes in the empire, but, counting those whose "favors are only a question of money," he reckons a total of "10 per cent. of the female population of all ages" in the repulsive category. The author demonstrates that, in new Japan, law is far ahead of custom. "There is *legally* in Japan no such thing as the sale of women; but custom in the East is far, far stronger than law, and, having been brought up in an atmosphere of unreasoning obedience, the Japanese woman simply submits to everything. . . . Even Confucius is called in to aid and abet the atrocity."

An interesting attempt to teach local history in the public schools is being made in Brookline, Mass. A pamphlet, prepared under the direction of the Education Society of the town, has lately been issued, treating in a clear and simple style the geography and geology of the region, the history of the early settlement of the town and its separation from Boston, old buildings of historical importance, transportation and routes of travel, slavery, Brookline in the Revolution and the Civil War, and, finally, the local government and the relation of the town to the State. The form is chiefly that of question and answer, but useful suggestions to teachers are interspersed, with numerous references to accessible books, and a good bibliography. The pamphlet will repay examination by teachers other than those for whose use it is primarily designed.

Those who deplore the rapid disappearance of our forests will find some ground for encouragement in the annual report of the Forest Commissioner of Maine for 1896, lately issued, in which the results of the first scientific examination of the forests of the State are given. A careful and detailed study of the great timber-producing regions leads Mr. Austin Carey, the expert employed for this purpose, to the conclusion that the yearly production of spruce is not yet overcut, and that, even with the continuance of present conditions and methods of cutting, the volume, estimated at 600 million feet annually, can be maintained for many years. What is to be apprehended is a decrease in the supply of certain kinds of spruce timber, and the depletion of certain limited areas. The pine growth has, of course, largely disappeared, and industrial conditions are not yet such as to render available the enormous hard-wood wealth of the State. Mr. Carey is none too early, however, in urging the need of scientific treatment of the forests, not alone for the prevention of needless waste, but for the actual increase of the value of the timber. The present cut, he points out, amounts to but thirty feet per acre on the gross area of the State, and to but sixty feet per acre on what is now actually spruce-bearing land—an insignificant amount in comparison with what could easily be assured under scientific forestry.

The death is announced of Dr. Johan Peter Julius Hoffory. Hoffory was born in Aarhus, Jutland, Denmark, the native town of his intimate friend the late Karl Verner, February 9, 1855. After graduating from the University of Copenhagen in 1878, he continued his studies at Berlin and Strassburg, and in 1883 was given his doctor's degree by his alma mater. In the same year he was appointed docent in Norse Philology at the University of Berlin, and four years later he was made the first incumbent of the chair in that subject. Hoffory's principal publication is his 'Eddastudien,' Berlin, 1889, only the first part of which has appeared. He also published articles and reviews in technical journals on Germanic mythology. His chief service, however, consisted in the interest that he aroused in Germany in Scandinavian studies. During the last eight years of his life he was prevented by sickness from engaging in severe mental labor.

The dropping of an entire line in the *Nation's* make-up last week quite perverted the sense of the reviewer of Thatcher's 'Short History of Mediæval Europe.' On p. 359, column 1, line 3, read "an avoidance of all *picturesqueness and an emphasis on the* personal element in the movement of events."

—Mr. William H. Goodyear continues, in the current *Architectural Record* (Vol. vi., No. 4), his remarkable series of papers on his "Discovery of Horizontal Curves in Medieval Italian Architecture," with an abundance of ocular demonstration, by photograph and plan, of such curves, as well as curves of elevation. They are not deflections of careless or ill-constructed building, and have no necessary relation to thrust, nor are they the result of displacement by earth-movement. For example, in the nave of S. Apollinare Nuovo in Ravenna, the "columns supporting the clerestory are arranged in parallel curves in plan, of about six inches deflection"; in the Fiesolé Cathedral the piers of the nave show parallel returning curves; many cloisters, as that of the Celestins in Bologna, show the four sides convex to the court. The fact that the Parthenon, the temples at Pæstum, and the Maison Carrée at Nismes, along with Egyptian temples, exhibit these curvatures, points to a tradition which the archæologist has still further to explore and to account for on grounds of subtler optical effects than are nowadays considered by architects. Mr. Goodyear says of the undulating pavement of St. Mark's at Venice that "the ceiling of the crypt argues that the main and prominent wave-line (across the church) of the pavement is intentionally constructed."

—Under the title of 'Southern Statesmen of the Old Régime' (Crowell), Prof. W. P. Trent, of the University of the South, has published six lectures delivered at the University of Wisconsin in 1896 as part of a course on the general history of the Southern States. The statesmen selected are Washington, Jefferson, John Randolph, Calhoun, Alexander H. Stephens, Robert Toombs (the last two being treated in one lecture), and Jefferson Davis. The lectures are written in a popular style, and make pleasant reading; and although they offer little that is new in the way of either fact or judgment, they give, with the exception of the lecture on Washington, interesting and effective pictures of the personal characteristics and temper of the men discussed. Prof. Trent has considerable skill in forming striking phrases, although in the use of it he sometimes sacrifices completeness to brilliancy; stripped of their rhetorical dress, however, his judgments do not appear to differ greatly from those of most impartial writers of recent years. The most interest-

LICENSED TO UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

ing thing about the book, after all, is the fact that it is written by a Southerner. Prof. Trent belongs to the present generation; he tells us that he cannot remember ever having seen a slave, and he knows of the war and ante-bellum days as historical facts, not as personal experiences. His book is a serious and praiseworthy attempt to estimate at their true worth the characters, political principles, and work of men very dear to the hearts of Southerners of an earlier time. In emphasizing, as candor compels him to do, his frequent dissent from the traditional view taken in the South, it is, perhaps, not unnatural that he should go a little to the other extreme, and give to limitations and defects, rather than to excellences, the benefit of the doubt. There can be little question that the work was worth doing, or that it will need to be done again; for so long as Southern schoolboys use textbooks in American history written under the shadow of the "old régime," so long, probably, will Southern scholars feel it their duty to set the crooked straight. It is much to be hoped, however, that, with the marked intellectual advancement which the South is now making, and of which the volume before us is by no means the least considerable evidence, the necessity for just this kind of historical work may, before long, disappear. Prof. Trent is not always conciliatory, and his book is not likely to be received with favor in certain quarters; but we venture the opinion that he has done something to hasten the day when the dead past will be left to bury its dead.

—The first four volumes of Mr. Thwaites's 'Jesuit Relations' have been filled with narratives which find no place in Cramoisy. The fifth brings us to the threshold of that famous series. It is devoted altogether to Father Paul le Jeune, whose 'Brieve Relation' of 1632 ushered in a set of forty annual reports from the Canadian missionaries. Even among the writings of the Jesuits we shall encounter few more profitable or interesting contributions to the history of the aborigines than his letters to Jacquinot, the French provincial of the order. Those of 1632 and 1633 are both largely anecdotal and full of truthful dramatic touches. Let any one who doubts the authenticity of these documents read what Le Jeune has to say about the Laurentian mosquitoes: "On ne sçauroit travailler notamment à l'air pendant leur regne, si on n'a de la fumée auprès soy pour les chasser." Besides going about with his eyes open, Le Jeune shows skill in presenting his observations. A large proportion of modern travellers publish undigested journals of each day's progress. We believe that the Jesuits were not less exact in describing what they saw, but they studiously culled and arranged with reference to style and rhetorical emphasis. Le Jeune's enthusiasm for the field of his new labor recalls the sentiments of New Englanders who went beyond the Mississippi and threw themselves into the task of developing the Far West. He maintains that the winter sun is warmer in Canada than in many parts of France. He reminds his correspondent that Quebec is on the same parallel with La Rochelle. He believes that when once the country has been cleared and cultivated it will equal Lombardy in fertility and pleasantness. We can best express the enjoyment we have derived from Le Jeune's lively stories and comments by stating that they are well worth reading aloud. The exhilaration of clear frosty weather breathes in his pages. The sober earnest of his cause inspired without oppressing him. What could be more charming in its way than this description of a glissade on snowshoes? "Combien de fois trouvant quelque colline ou montagne a descendre, me suis-je laissé rouler a bas sur la neige, sans en recevoir autre incommodité, sinon de changer pour un peu de temps mon habit noir en un habit blanc, et encore cela se fait-il en riant; car si on ne se soustient bien assis sur ses raquettes, on se blanchit aussi bien la teste, que les pieds." Fortunately there is yet more of the 1633 Relation to be published in vol. vi. The publishers have generously presented to subscribers an extra map of New France, in a paper case, to save them the trouble of always consulting the map attached to the first volume.

—A few months ago, in noticing in these columns Prof. Gerini's book, we alluded to the comparative neglect, at the hands of writers on educational history, of the early Italian humanists, little expecting that we should soon have occasion to welcome a meritorious work on that very subject in the vernacular. 'Vittorino da Feltre and Other Humanist Educators: Essays and Versions—An Introduction to the History of Classical Education,' by W. H. Woodward (Cambridge, England: The University Press; New York: Macmillan), is an attractive volume, superior to the Italian work, as far as it covers the same ground, in composition as well as in accuracy of scholarship and abundance of reference to original sources. In the first part, "A Study of the Life and Work of V. da Feltre," the author unrolls a fascinating picture of humanistic learning in Italy soon after its beginnings. Vittorino was born four years after the death of Petrarch, and entered the University of Padua when there was as yet no chair of either Greek or mathematics. This was in the same year (1396) in which the Studium of Florence invited Manuel Chrysoloras, of Constantinople, to accept the first professorship of Greek in the West. Thus, though he died seven years before the fall of Constantinople, Vittorino witnessed, enjoyed, and helped to promote the new study during the first half century after its introduction. He himself commenced Greek at the age of thirty-seven under Guarini, one of the three scholars able to speak and write the language of whom Italy could boast at the time. Vittorino's best work was done at Mantua, where he stayed in the service of the Gonzaga family from 1423 till his death, in 1446, and where he "established and perfected the first great school of the Renaissance—a school whose spirit, curriculum, and method justify us in regarding it as a landmark of critical importance in the history of classical education." Classical education, we are repeatedly reminded in Mr. Woodward's pages, had, in the judgment of the first humanists, very practical aims, and their humanist enthusiasm was permeated and controlled by the Christian spirit. This was especially the case in the Mantuan school. Vittorino was unquestionably an ideal teacher, whose authority, extending even to the princely family, was due to his genius. One of the greatest scholars of his age, he shrank from every display of erudition; he never published anything; but the influence exerted by his example and teaching was far-reaching and beneficent. The essay on Vittorino is followed by excellent translations of the most important educational essays of Vergerius, Lionardo Bruni, Aeneas Sylvius, and Battista Guarini, and, finally, by a discussion of the "Aims and Methods of the Humanist Educator." We close the book with the conviction that it will be read with delight by many a teacher of the classics and many a student of the history of education.

—In these days, when many eyes have been turned to India as the scene of the recent famine, it may interest the more scholarly public to know that a new translation of a portion of the ancient sacred hymns of the Hindus has appeared. This rendering comes from the pen of a recognized German authority on the Veda, Hermann Oldenberg, of the University of Kiel. The volume itself is entitled 'Vedic Hymns, Part Two' (Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan), and it forms the forty-sixth in the series of "Sacred Books of the East," edited by Max Müller, the preceding part having been translated by the editor himself. Other parts are to follow. Prof. Oldenberg's previous contributions in the field of the literature and religion of the 'Veda,' his 'Prolegomena' and 'Religion,' as well as his works on Buddhism, have won for his name an honorable place among specialists in the Sanskrit field and among those who are generally interested in the ancient lore of India. His present volume is confined to the Agni hymns, or those addressed to the God of Fire; and there is space for translating only the first half of the fire-hymns which the 'Rig-Veda' contains. Critical notes are appended to each hymn. The volume will prove of value to students of mythology, religion, and anthropology, and it is a boon to have so good an index of important words, passages, and explanations as is the index with which the book concludes.

POLITICAL MACHINERY ON THE CONTINENT.

Governments and Parties in Continental Europe. By A. Lawrence Lowell. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 2 vols. 1896.

Mr. Lowell has made a valuable contribution, in these two handsome volumes, to our popular sources of information concerning the governments and parties of Continental countries. The work consists of five essays on the political institutions and parties of France, Italy, Germany, Austria-Hungary, and Switzerland respectively. Each essay consists of two parts—the first, devoted to the exposition of the machinery of government in each country, general and local; the second, to an explanation of how this machinery is worked.

When one considers that this large field is covered in little more than 700 pages of large print and generous margins, it is plain that the work must be very general in character; but, unlike many such general works, it is not on this account superficial. Mr. Lowell makes the impression of a writer who not only has intended to be fair and objective in his presentation, but has on the whole succeeded in his attempt. It must be said, however, that there is just a little of what the Germans call "Tendenz" in the work—that is, a little trace of ulterior ends in the exposition. If the author has not exactly

LICENSED TO UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

been looking for evidence in the working of governmental institutions on the Continent in favor of the correctness of certain views of his own formed prior to this investigation, he cannot at any rate conceal his satisfaction when he comes upon what he considers valuable support in foreign experience of his own ideas on American politics.

It is true that the fundamental thesis of the work (if it is proper to use such a term of an exposition which lays down no general propositions) is that one must be very chary of drawing lessons for one's home politics from the institutions and politics of foreign countries. The author calls attention to the fact that most Continental countries on their road towards free government followed in the first instance English example more or less, and adopted a scheme of parliamentary government which, as it lacked the historic basis of English parliamentarism, to use a German phrase, has turned out to be a very different thing in its actual workings from what one expected. The author then attempts to show in what way it became different, and why; leaving us to infer, perhaps, that some other way would have been better. It is easy, of course, to carry this point of view too far. If it is true that we cannot always argue that a certain political device which has proved itself of use in a foreign country will on that account work well with us, we are certainly not justified in going to the other extreme, and arguing that because it has served other countries well, therefore, it cannot be of use to us. As a matter of fact to-day, with the growing tendency towards democracy, and with the increasing similarity of industrial and social conditions, it is probable that every passing decade will show the adoption or invention in some one country of political devices which will prove valuable to many others. The Australian ballot system is a case in point. We ought to keep open mind, therefore, for every new experiment and for every successful institution, with a possible view of utilizing, if not the devices themselves, at least the lessons which may be drawn from their history. It would be difficult after all to prove that the Continental nations, in their attempt to introduce free government, could have done a better thing than to imitate the English system of parliamentary government, in spite of the fact that it has turned out to be such a different thing under their hands.

The declared object of this work, as set forth in the preface, is to investigate in the actual politics of Continental States the workings of the party system in modern political life. Parties are a fact, and as such their manifestations ought to be studied, and the conclusions of the book on this point are summed up as follows:

"In Venice the absence of parties or factions prevented the State from falling into anarchy and despotism like the other Italian republics. In England the existence of two strong parties enabled the people to control the crown and made parliamentary government possible. In France the subdivision of parties has prevented the parliamentary system from being a success, and both there and in Germany it has been a constant obstacle to popular government, while in Switzerland the subdivision and low development of parties has enabled the people to maintain one of the most perfect democracies the world has ever seen."

The book, in fact, undertakes, however, to deal with only a small portion of the great subject of political parties. It is simply an attempt to study the relation between the development of parties and the mechanism of modern government, and other questions are referred to only so far as they have a bearing on the main theme. From this point of view the work must be pronounced a success and a valuable contribution to current political literature.

The most difficult country to discuss from this point of view is, perhaps, Austria-Hungary, and, next to it, Germany, owing to the complicated system of federal government characteristic of both countries. In each case the author has done his work unusually well. The historical portion, though brief, is to the point; while the present relations are set forth with a fulness and correctness not often found in English writers on German and Austrian affairs. A good instance is Mr. Lowell's discussion of the place of Prussia in the German Empire. One may say that, if the student understands fully the position of Prussia in its relation to its sister States, and to the federal Government of the Empire, he will have grasped the key to the understanding of federal politics. This position cannot be understood, however, merely from a study of the Constitution itself and of the federal laws. Under the German system the various States may enter into agreements with each other in regard to a great variety of matters which are excluded from such treatment in this country. Prussia has, in fact, concluded agreements with many of the smaller States by which they have practically handed over to the Prussian crown some of the most important branches of public administration, thus becoming for all practical purposes a part of Prussia. Prussia contains in its own territory about three-fifths of the population of the Empire, but administers government for more than four-fifths of the population. It is easy to understand that a federal system under which one State embraces practically more than four-fifths of the population and a still larger proportion of the governing and military ability of the country, is bound, in its working, to be so different from such a system as our own, for example, as to be hardly recognizable as belonging to the same class of political institutions.

The author has also given an excellent, if brief, account of local government in Prussia, in which the distinctive differences between American and German methods of treating such subjects come out very distinctly. If any criticism were to be offered on this part of the book, it would be that the space allotted to the smaller German States would have yielded better results for the general reader if it had been devoted to a somewhat fuller account of Prussian institutions.

Exception may be taken to some of the less important statements; as, for instance, that the entrance of Bavaria into the Empire was due to the personal conviction of King Louis, and that if the ministers had been responsible to the Deputies, it is doubtful whether Bavaria would ever have taken that step. It seems pretty clear, on the contrary, that the entrance of Bavaria into the Empire was instigated by Bismarck, who practically offered the King the chance to propose what he must in any case have accepted within a short time, and Bismarck would have regarded ministers as little as he did King. It is not quite true, again, to say that the influence of the Landtag (p. 300) over the administration is confined to expressing an opinion which is not likely to have any great effect. On the contrary, things are taking much the same course in Prussia in this respect as previously in other countries. The power of the Landtag over money grants is steadily growing. Appropriations which were formerly made in lump are now made in a very detailed form, and each item may give rise to debate which affects very profoundly the course of the Government. The author is also inclined, it seems to us, to underrate the actual power of the Reichstag in federal matters, though in doing so he is following most English and French commentators. The power of the Reichstag is, it is true, much smaller than one might suppose from merely reading the provisions of the Constitution relating to this subject, but it is, on the contrary, more effective than one would infer from the statement (p. 256) that its activity is rather negative than positive. The distribution of the seats in the Reichstag has not been revised, the author tells us, for more than a score of years, and was originally based on single-member districts containing a population of 100,000 souls. This is an understatement, as the distribution was practically made for most of the Empire in 1867, and has never been changed, and was at that time based largely on a scheme used in electing members to the Frankfort Convention in 1848—that is, it is in some parts fifty years old.

The chapters on Switzerland are among the most interesting in the book, and the part devoted to the referendum is one of the most lucid and valuable expositions of that much-vaunted institution which have been thus far written in any language. The detailed study of the history of its actual application throws a flood of light on political tendencies in democracies. As in our own country on many occasions, so in Switzerland, public indifference seems to be the most striking characteristic; popular conservatism the next. Nearly all attempts at what one may call radical social legislation have been thwarted when submitted to popular vote. The law limiting the duration of labor in factories to twelve hours a day, and which proposed to protect the women who work in them and to forbid the employment of children during the years when they are required to go to school, was voted down in Zurich, evidently by the working classes themselves. Nearly all attempts to improve the condition of the working classes by legislation, such as compulsory insurance, increased liability of employers, increased school facilities, have met with a like experience.

The chapters devoted to France are of special interest to Americans, explain more fully than any other essay of equal length in English the peculiar conditions of French politics, and enable us to understand the variable temper of the French Chambers. A careful reader of Mr. Lowell's chapters would find plain what seems to so many Americans an inexplicable riddle, viz., how it comes that cabinet after cabinet may fall without any perceptible change in the policy of the Government. He would come to realize that there is a certain method in what seems on the surface to be pure madness. He would soon find in the powers and policy of the committee on the budget an example of committee rule run mad, with the usual result of such an organization of government—inefficiency and extravagance. The

LICENSED TO UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

French Senate in this exposition does not seem so far below our own as it might have done before our recent experiences with that honorable body.

The peculiar difficulties with which Italy has had to struggle as well as those which make the problem of government in Austria-Hungary so difficult, are picked out with rare skill by the author and set forth in an unusually intelligent manner. Indeed, one may say that one of the most valuable results arising from a general study of these volumes would be a far more sympathetic attitude on the part of the average American toward the political difficulties and struggles of European countries. He would learn to appreciate the immense opportunities and advantages which have been opened to us for a fair trial of the problem of popular government as compared with our fellow-men across the sea.

There are many other interesting topics on which one would like to dwell, but we may take leave of the work with a suggestion that all persons interested in current political movements and discussions in this country and on the Continent would do well to study it with care. One feature of it is especially to be commended. The author has given full references to the sources of his information, which heightens very much the value of the work for students. In an appendix, he has printed in the original the constitutional documents for the five countries whose institutions and politics are discussed. He would surely have done better to translate them into English. The special student of Continental politics can get the originals in a more convenient form, and the general reader will not be likely to have the technical knowledge necessary to make the documents intelligible.

HOLIDAY'S STAINED GLASS.

Stained Glass as an Art. By Henry Holiday. With a colored reproduction of the drawing for "The Creation," twenty collotypes, and many illustrations in the text from designs by Sir Edward Burne-Jones, W. B. Richmond, R.A., and the Author. Macmillan. 1896.

MR. HOLIDAY'S book is really an anachronism. It is an elaborate treatise on the art of stained glass in which the inventions and methods that will surely revolutionize the practice of that art, are given only brief mention in an appendix on "American Glass." In that appendix he says: "I felt that a treatise on stained glass would be incomplete which did not deal with this important new departure, and the principles to which I strongly adhere rendered it impossible for me to assent to it as a method." Mr. Holiday is himself a designer of glass after the English method, and it is natural that he should consider this method the only proper one. Even in England, however, American glass and American methods are beginning to be used, and it is as certain as anything can be that the older style of work in glass is doomed. In this country we have made many experiments with the new material, and some of them have been far from happy. We have often used it to wrong ends and in wrong ways, but the material itself is so infinitely superior to anything heretofore known that its use is bound to prevail, and the best methods of using it will gradually assert themselves.

To us it seems that the very "principles" which have led Mr. Holiday to the rejection of American methods—principles which he has stated at length in the volume before us, and which are eminently sound—should, if logically developed, lead him to exactly the opposite conclusion. All that he says about the nature of the material, the limitations of the art, its proper aims and its proper technic, seems to us to point to the direction the art is taking in this country as the natural and inevitable course of its evolution. His book is the first systematic attempt we have seen to describe the processes and formulate the principles of the art of stained glass, and we shall try to show in this review that his arguments really prove the conclusion he rejects.

After a brief introduction the book is divided into three parts, under the headings "Material and Technique," "Artistic Possibilities inherent in Stained Glass from the point of view of Technique," and "The Artistic Possibilities of Stained Glass, considered in relation to the Situation and Purpose of the Work." Part I. opens with a definition which, barring the insistence on painting, is admirable: "A stained-glass window consists of pieces of white and colored glass, on which lines and shadows have been painted and burnt in, joined together with grooved leads." On p. 11, certain windows in the Cathedral of Pisa are mentioned, "which consist of little more than a mosaic of pieces of colored glass leaded together without shadows and almost without lines, . . . in some of which even the heads are without features." These windows are considered "unsatisfactory" by Mr. Holiday, but their existence alone would warrant the dropping of the "lines and shadows" from our definition and the reduction of it to the form: "A stained-glass window consists of pieces of white and colored glass joined together with grooved leads." It will be observed that the glass and the leads are the two elements, and that they are of equal importance.

Of the glass, Mr. Holiday says: "The color is in the glass itself, being introduced while it is in a state of fusion." "The color, as a rule, equally pervades the whole of a sheet of glass," but in "flashed glass" it is in a superficial layer, which is "often very unequal in thickness and streaky in character, qualities *which are useful to the artist.*" Occasionally, also, "'spoiled' glass is to be had where a little of one color has remained at the bottom of a pot in which another colored glass is melted, in which case the old color gets streaked into the lowest part of the new, sometimes with very charming results." Mr. Holiday expressly approves of the use of this "spoiled" glass, though he would not have the artist rely upon it. As such glass is rarely used by the adherents of the older methods, light and shade is supplied by the adding of pigment, which is "a monochrome of a black or blackish-brown color." The leads separate the pieces of colored glass with necessarily prominent black lines, which are "as invaluable for decorative as for structural purposes." The preservation of "the distinctive character and beauty of the material" is the first condition of good work in all the technical arts, and the materials here are colored glass and lead. "As the distinctive character of glass is unquestionably its transparency, the preservation of this is the first duty of the glass-painter." "Splendor of color" is as characteristic of stained glass as transparency, and painting the glass not only dims its transparency, but discolors it, so that glass is unfit for the representation of natural effects or powerful light and shade, and the painted shadows, if used, should be light. Also, the nature of the window is to be flat, and, like other decorations, its flatness should be accentuated in its design. Form is, however, as important as color, for "the glass can be just as readily cut to one shape as another," and "in no other material is form as prominent as in this. The sharp opposition of the colors, the brilliancy of the lights and depth of the darks, and the vigorous outlines given by the leads, all combine to emphasize every form" in a supreme degree.

All these points are dwelt upon by Mr. Holiday, and developed further than we have space for. They are the points essential for the understanding of the art of stained glass and of its newer developments. In spite of the magnificence of the best mediæval glass, part of which, we have always suspected, is the result of the crust of age formed upon old windows, something remained to be done. All modern attempts at producing stained glass seemed thin and feeble in comparison, and attained only brilliancy and glitter, not splendor and glow. Then came the experiments of some American artists, of whom the greatest is Mr. John LaFarge, to obtain a finer result by a change in the manufacture of the glass itself. We can do no better than to quote Mr. Holiday's account of the experiments, merely premising that there was more than one experimenter on these lines, and that there has been some dispute as to the priority of the conception.

The idea was to make greater and deliberate use of those accidents of manufacture which had caused the "spoiled glass" or "streaky-pot," the occasional use of which Mr. Holiday permits.

"By the introduction of opalescent qualities, by letting the colors run into one another, and by twisting and flattening the glass while still soft, he obtained a great many varied and graduated colors. The twisting of the glass gave also creases and ridges somewhat resembling drapery. With these qualities of material at his disposal, Mr. La Farge conceived the idea of eliminating altogether painting on the glass . . . with the view of preserving in its greatest purity the transparency and brilliancy of the colors, and at the same time not sacrificing the light and shade which is wanting in the glass at Pisa."

Such is "American glass," and its use seems the logical outcome of all that has gone before. It certainly conforms to Mr. Holiday's cardinal rule for the technical arts, that their aim should be the preservation of the distinctive character and beauty of the material. The preservation of the transparency and purity of color of the glass itself was the main aim, but the new way of working gives, as we shall see, new importance to that other necessary element of the window, the leads.

Let us take up now Mr. Holiday's objections to the American system and examine them. The first and most important is that "*it substitutes accident for design*" (the italics are his), and accident "is a useful servant, but is the worst possible master." "The only part of the design which it leaves completely under the control of the artist," he says, "is the shape of the separate pieces of glass, and therefore the leads which unite these and form the chief

LICENSED TO UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

outlines. . . . Any lines . . . within these, and all shadows, depend absolutely on what the artist can find in the accidents of his materials." If accident were indeed substituted for design in the making of American glass, the fact would be deplorable, but it is not. Mr. Holiday himself points out the necessity of having a large stock of glass, "not for the sake of getting many colors into one window, but to get as much play as possible into each color," and shows how a piece of blue drapery may be made of eight or ten different blues. Now the difference in these blues is the result of accident, but the use of them is the result of design. The American designer has simply vastly increased the number of these utilizable accidents, has an immensely larger stock of glass than the English artist, and has found by experience that, with a sufficiently large stock, he can always find what he wants. The difference is that, in the English manner, the man who paints the glass is the important artist (after the original designer), while in America it is the man who selects the glass. In the most successful work this man is the designer himself.

But, Mr. Holiday goes on, the artist's servitude to accident would not stop with the internal markings or shades; it would extend to the outer contours and lead lines. "The impossibility of making his forms intelligible within the leads will compel him to treat these outer lines . . . so as to make their meaning clear." And why not? We have seen that the lead is an essential part of the window, and that its firm black line is of the greatest decorative as well as structural value. Why should not this inevitable black line become the natural unit of the design? In English work the facility of painting has led to the most capricious and unreasonable treatment of the lead line, which now cuts square across an important part of a figure and now skirts around a great mass in which the essential forms are indicated only by the painter. It is in this direction that we believe the greatest improvement is yet to be made in the art of stained glass. It is too true, as Mr. Holiday observes, that in much American work form has become a secondary matter, and effects of color only are aimed at, but this need not and should not be so. If we will clearly recognize the fact that the two elements of color and form are represented in a window by the glass and the leads, and that the *lead lines alone* ought to make the design as clear as would the outline of a picture, we shall be on the right road. It has so happened that our artists in glass have been greater as colorists than as linear designers, but in designing the leading of a great window there is room and to spare for the highest mastery of linear design.

Mr. Holiday also makes some objections to the color of the American windows as color. The first of these is that the painted flesh is out of key with the unpainted drapery glass, and the second is that, in spite of the transparency of the glass, it fails to glitter. Only painting, he thinks, will give the glitter he so highly prizes. The first of these objections is, in a measure, true, and various efforts have been made to overcome it. One method is to get the light and shade by biting the glass with acid. Another would be to attempt none, and to get what form is necessary with the lead-lines and a few painted outlines, as the early glass-workers did. But as a matter of fact the thin-looking, white flesh of English windows is infinitely more out of harmony with the full color about it than is the most heavily painted head in a window by La Farge. As to the second objection, it is simply a question whether we prefer the sharp glitter of English glass to the wonderful glow of Mr. La Farge's work, and we think that any one with a love of color may be safely left to make the choice for himself.

On the third part of Mr. Holiday's book, which he considers much the most important, and which is much the longest, we have little criticism to offer. His observations on the designing of glass "in relation to its situation and purpose" seem to us usually sound, though it is perhaps regrettable that he should have thought it necessary to mingle them with expressions at great length of his opinions on philosophy, religion, socialism, commercialism, and other things having litle connection with the matter in hand. On these matters, however, he has no claim to authority, and no one need pay any attention to what he says of them; as a designer of glass, his opinions on the technique of his art are entitled to serious consideration and confutation.

JEVONS'S HISTORY OF RELIGION.

An Introduction to the History of Religion. By Frank Byron Jevons, M.A., Litt.D., Classical Tutor in the University of Durham. London: Methuen & Co.

Dr. Jevons's aim is to "prepare the student for the History of Religion," and for this purpose he works in his own way upon the lines of Dr. Tylor's well-known 'Primitive Culture.' Most of Dr. Tylor's book is devoted to "animism," but he does not exclude such non-religious phases of savage and barbarian culture as it is at all possible to grasp, given the uncertainty of available data. Dr. Jevons, however, strictly confines himself to the concerns of primitive religion, and accordingly conveys, in spite of all he can do, the impression that savages were even more completely engrossed by their religious and superstitious practices than we have reason to believe they actually were. This somewhat misleading impression is given because we know so little, and understand so ill the little we know, of primitive culture that any partial account of it must mislead. Another exclusion of Dr. Jevons's is misleading in a different way. He takes advantage of Robertson Smith's now familiar distinction between positive religions — Christianity, Mohammedanism, and Buddhism—and religions of unconscious tradition, such as the various savage religions and all forms of polytheism, in order to exclude from his survey those points of contact between superstitions surviving in Christianity and the practices of primitive worship. Such allusions to Christianity as he makes represent it as the more or less completely expurgated creed of the higher classes and of the Reformation. He contrasts with this the whole-hearted superstitions of savages and the popular and illiterate phases of polytheism. In a word, Dr. Jevons's savage is too exclusively religious, his polytheist is too scrupulously unintelligent, while his Christian is always a Protestant, and an enlightened one at that.

This being noted, we may look on while our author constructs out of the vast accumulations of recorded facts, which he has plainly studied with great diligence, a consecutive, if not a coherent, account of the development of "natural" religion. Out of animism, viewed by him as a hypothetical and non-religious first stage, proceeded "totemism," "the earliest form of religion known to science," which, however, "may be a relapse from an earlier and purer form," and yet (because the idea of animal sacrifice "can hardly be regarded as innate") presupposes a stage where man had not identified his inner consciousness of the divine with an animal species by a process of vain reasoning." Surely Dr. Jevons is bound to mean everywhere what he often says, that this preliminary stage is "animism," a non-religious phase of the primitive mind, and this obliges him as an evolutionist to give up the thought that totemism may be derived by degeneration from a previous and higher form of religion. But, to proceed with the second stage, out of totemism came, everywhere save among the Jews, polytheism. Totemism, however, was potentially monotheistic, according to our author, and among the Jews it developed into monotheism. Finally, out of Jewish monotheism sprang Christianity, "which is so far heir to all the ages as to fulfil all the dumb, dim expectation of mankind: in it alone the sacramental meal commemorates by ordinance of its founder the divine sacrifice which is a propitiation for the sins of all mankind." To derive monotheism from totemism, passing by as irrelevant all the higher ideas and ideals of Semitic and Hellenic polytheism, and attaching Christianity directly to monotheism so derived, is a difficult task, nor has Dr. Jevons been successful in accomplishing it. The connection between totemism and polytheism he makes quite plain, but how totemism could be the germ of Jewish monotheism, with no intermediate stage of polytheism, is nowhere sufficiently explained.

"Evolution is universal," says our author, "but progress is rare." This is so often repeated that we cannot but pause and consider what is meant by such insistence. Magic—which Mr. Frazer and Dr. Tylor apparently agree with Mr. Andrew Lang in placing at the very beginning—is declared by our author to be a phase of deterioration, though he by no means clearly says what preceded it. Totemism also "may be" a degeneration. Fetishism he does not recognize, in spite of Dr. Tylor's constant use of the term. Polytheism, like totemism, is a degeneration. Only monotheism and Christianity are allowed as phases in the evolution of religion which contain that rare thing—especially unprocurable in religion, it would seem—progress. Rather than attempt to fit together three initial phases of degeneration and two closing ones of progress, it would seem better to abandon the notion of evolution entirely. But Dr. Jevons has a view of evolution which, in his opinion, suits just such a case. On page 8 he says: "If evolution takes place, something will be evolved; and that something, as being continuously present in all the different stages, may be called the *continuum* of religion. . . . Now the existence of this *continuum* the historian of religion, if he is an evolutionist, has to accept." We are rather in the dark as to what this *continuum* may be until our author says, on p. 393, "that the law of con-

LICENSED TO UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

tinuity must prevail throughout the history of religion," and, after rejecting Dr. Tylor's broad conception of "animism," he adds that the *continuum* is "the belief that all things which act, all agents, are personal agents."

But how, we may ask, does the primitive mind achieve this all-important *continuum*, this primeval conviction that all things animate and inanimate are personal agents? Apparently our author makes man derive this from that "gift by the power of which mankind has conquered the material universe, . . . the belief that what has once happened will in similar circumstances happen again" (p. 17). After all, then, Dr. Jevons's famous *continuum* in religion is a belief in the uniformity of nature. If this strikes us as having little to do with the religious consciousness, we cannot say the same of the innate consciousness of a distinction between "natural spirits" and "supernatural spirits." This most incomprehensible of innate ideas is much dwelt upon in the early chapters, on the supernatural and on sympathetic magic, where it seems to be a yoke-fellow of the innate idea of the uniformity of nature; but at the close of the book (p. 409) Dr. Jevons declares that man derived the "sentiment of the supernatural" not from "external facts of which he was conscious, but from his own heart; the sense of his dependence upon a supernatural will not his own, though personal like his own, was found by him in his inner consciousness —a fact of which he had no more doubt than he doubted that fire burns." Here, then, we find nothing new under the sun, but that extremely old-fashioned "innate idea of God." By the side of it, in order to have something quite new, we may place Dr. Jevons's account of taboo, which is a "primitive sentiment," a "tendency inherent in the mind of man." Having found so many innate ideas, we are reassured by remembering that Dr. Jevons declares that the idea of animal sacrifice can hardly be regarded as innate.

Our author's whimsical combination of a number of arbitrarily chosen and obscurely defined "primitive sentiments and tendencies inherent in the mind of man," in order to portray the history of religion as an evolution which is a succession of more or less complete "degenerations," sounds and seems very odd, and we cannot help noting that he speaks more than once with exceptional admiration and delight of Bishop Butler, and seems to court some sort of association with that learned divine. We may accordingly remember that the ingenious Bishop of Durham has been especially criticised for pursuing his analysis only to a certain point, and then accepting as ultimate what was more or less obviously derivative. However, Butler had little or nothing to say which directly bears upon what the new school of anthropological study calls religious psychology. Dr. Jevons only exhibits in a rather glaring form a modern frailty which is leading some of the younger students of comparative religion to substitute for tentative generalizations, based on known and observed facts, a more or less complicated and conventionalized theory of human nature which is hardly justified by the unprejudiced consideration of recorded facts. It is this conventionalized analysis of human nature which finds its counterpart in Bishop Butler's work.

Looking at Dr. Jevons's book in detail, we find evidence of the most careful study, and his two chapters on the mysteries are remarkably convincing and clear. The defect in what he says of Greek polytheism has to do with his exclusion of mythology from the field of the history of religion. It is of course far easier, as Dr. Tylor long since said, to obtain accurate accounts of ceremonies by eye-witnesses, than anything like trustworthy and intelligible statements of doctrine or detailed recitals of myths. Have not anthropologists been influenced by this in declaring so definitely that mythology does not concern religion? Certainly the omission of Hellenic mythology from an account of Hellenic religion involves the exclusion of what the poets have contributed to the record of Greek polytheism, and results in a meagre and most unprepossessing picture, such as that suggested by our author in the present book.

In closing, we are bound to say that Dr. Jevons has failed to make good a statement in his "Introductory" chapter, where he urges that "to say that the only evolution in religion—except that which is on the lines of the Bible—is an evolution of error, may be quite true, and yet not show that the idea of evolution is inapplicable to heathen religions." It is apparent that Dr. Jevons has succeeded in applying the category of evolution to the facts as he understands them, only by attaching a most strained and unnatural sense to that much used word. The most obvious inconvenience of this will be felt by those students who may seriously accept our author's guidance, and regard themselves as prepared for the study of the history of religion by the present book. It cannot fail to restrict their range of vision and of interest, and they will unquestionably be influenced by it to neglect a large portion of the field of comparative study, and to confine themselves, more or less exclusively, to totemism, Judaism, and Christianity.

An Essay on Comedy and the Uses of the Comic Spirit. By George Meredith. Scribners: 1897.

It is now twenty years since Mr. Meredith delivered his famous lecture at the London Institution on "Comedy and the Uses of the Comic Spirit." The shades of the *New Quarterly Magazine* for April, 1877, received it, and thenceforward it was lost to the general public, though Meredithians like Mr. Le Gallienne would now and again allude to it reverently as to a thing dead to all but themselves. Mr. Meredith has at last exhumed it for our entertainment, as he revived the "Modern Love" Sonnet Series when it was beginning to pass from hand to hand in manuscript copies of the old hoarded first edition. The general reader who reads Meredith will find it agreeable to observe that, through all the novelist's later work, from the 'Egotist,' which immediately followed it, down to 'Jump to Glory Jane,' the echoes of this little essay reverberate still, so that Mr. Meredith's meditations on the Comic Spirit in 1877 have at any rate profoundly influenced himself.

"C'est une étrange entreprise que celle de faire rire les honnêtes gens," says Molière, and Mr. Meredith does not depreciate the difficulties of the adventure. The genius of Comedy demands certain conditions for its development—a society of cultivated men and women to supply the comic poet with matter and an audience; for his subtle delicacy and power of penetration will be wasted unless a corresponding acuteness exist in his hearers. It is this subtle hearer that is so hard to find, at any rate out of France. The man who has a Puritanic scruple against laughing at all, and the man who laughs at everything, will be equally unappreciative of "Tartuffe." If there were more standing at middle distance between these two, the genius of Comedy might flourish; as it is, no wonder the comic poet is so shy an apparition; no wonder that Mr. Meredith, in illustration of the principles laid down in 1877, published in 1879 not such a comedy as perhaps only Mr. Meredith could write, but the 'Egotist: A Comedy in Narrative,' where the "humanely malign" light of the Comic Spirit illumines the figures of *Sir Willoughby Patterne* and *Dr. Middleton*, and hunts them down with "volleys of silvery laughter." Mr. Meredith's appeal to the British public to welcome the Comic Spirit is pathetic in its earnestness and futility. "We have plenty of common-sense," he cries, "and of common-sense the Vigilant Comic Spirit is the first-born. No one would presume to say that we are deficient in jokers; we have a rich laugh" (though not the Frenchman's mentally digestive laugh, the "slim-feasting smile" that comes from the brain). He even recommends themes for the comic treatment, themes which the Comic Spirit would "illumine like very lightning," and sighs for an Aristophanes to throw a sharp light on the affairs of the modern Englishman. Mr. Meredith pulls himself together with the reflection that, were Englishmen confronted with the Comic Idea, and the pessimist and optimist lit up by its oblique beams, it might be more than they could bear.

All this has a familiar ring. The author of 'Friendship's Garland' might have drawn Mr. Meredith's picture of the English middle class to which he appeals with the same persistency and the same despair.

> "They live in a hazy atmosphere that they suppose an ideal one. . . . Of comedy they have a shivering dread, for comedy enfolds them with the wretched host of the world, huddles them . . . in an ignoble assimilation. . . . You may distinguish them by a favorite phrase, 'Surely we are not so bad!' and the remark, 'If that is human nature, save us from it,' as if it could be done; but in the peculiar Paradise of the wilful people who will not see, the exclamation assumes the saving grace."

Is not this the type that Matthew Arnold used to meet "travelling on the Woodford branch in large numbers"? Compare with them the French middle class with Molière for its poet! Here Mr. Meredith might have given us as a commentary the immortal remark of Sir Roger de Coverley on coming from the play, "which I should not have gone to, neither, had I not been told beforehand that it was a good Church of England comedy."

The realistic English comedy of manners —"manners of South Sea Islanders under city veneer"—whose extinction Lamb lamented, is wittily reviewed; in it the true Comic Spirit, the *vis comica* of Aristophanes, had no part; all was *remuage*—agitation; "no calm, merely bustling figures, and no thought, . . . neither salt nor soul." Mr. Meredith excepts Congreve's "Way of the World"—which failed on the stage. The English school has not clearly imagined society, or the mind hovering above it; but the French are better off with their models of comedy to turn to.

LICENSED TO UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

Mr. Meredith makes the position of women in society the test of the presence or absence of the genuine Comic Spirit. "There has been fun in Bagdad. But there never will be civilization where comedy is not possible; and that comes of some degree of social equality of the sexes. . . . The higher the comedy, the more prominent part women enjoy in it." Mr. Meredith accordingly decides that "the poor voice allowed to women in German domestic life will account for the absence of comic dialogues reflecting upon life in that land. . . . The German literary laugh is never a laugh of men and women in concert." When we turn to Spanish comedy it is the same tale. The more the sexes are separated, the less chance for the play of the Comic Genius, the more room for tragedy in life and on the stage. A dozen times does Mr. Meredith apply this test and point triumphantly to his conclusions.

He tells us that writing for the stage is an admirable and neglected exercise which "keeps writers to a definite plan and to English." More than ever do we regret Mr. Meredith's abstention from the chastening art. It is only fair, however, to say that this attractive essay is written in perfectly clear English, and though its pages are as thickly starred with metaphors as 'The Amazing Marriage,' there are fewer of the images that stun, more that illumine. The true lover of Meredithyrambic will find his portion in the description of a heroine of the typical English comedy, whose wit is likened to a pistol-shot at a burglar, to steam in an engine, to good wine, to the sword of a cavalier in the mall, to the smack of harlequin's wand upon the clown. We meet again our old friend, the "laugh that flung up the brows like a fortress lifted by gunpowder." But there is a marked absence of the plethoric manner, and one need not be a Meredithian to welcome back this one of the "lost works of George Meredith," whose disappearance Mr. Barrie deplored ten years ago.

Letters from the Scenes of the Recent Massacres in Armenia. By J. Rendel Harris and Helen B. Harris. With map and other illustrations. Fleming H. Revell Co.

IN themselves considered, these letters are charming specimens of epistolary correspondence, affording on the one side glimpses into the hearts of two very sweet and lovely personalities, and, on the other side, drawing many gracious pictures of those with whom the writers came in contact — Americans, Europeans, Armenians, and Turks. The incidents of travel are interesting, and the descriptions of life and scenery captivating, while here and there an archæological episode adds still a different zest to the narrative; but above all else there is the tragic interest of the massacre and persecution of the Armenians because of their prosperity and their religion.

Professor and Mrs. Harris went out from England to carry relief from the Friends to the afflicted districts. The report of their work was made in the shape of circular letters, and these letters seemed to those who received them so interesting and valuable that they were circulated somewhat further than was originally designed, which led ultimately to their publication in book form. There are in all thirty-seven letter-chapters. The first letter is dated from Constantinople, March 28, 1896, and the last letter from Samsoon, on the Black Sea, November 22, in the same year.

Professor and Mrs. Harris have made the most terrible arraignment of the Sultan and the European Powers yet made, because they have not arraigned them at all, but simply told what they saw. Their effort seems to be to find everything good that can be said, and to avoid horrors, so far as possible. Over and over again we meet with Turks who show sympathy with their work, or who protected Christians in the massacres; and these pictures of kind-hearted Turks only make clearer the fact, of which incidentally abundant proof is given, that the massacres were, throughout, the result of orders from above, namely, from the Sultan. The Harrises even came across some villages of Kurds who had refused to participate in the outrages, and had been themselves pillaged and impoverished under Government orders in consequence.

The massacre of Eghin took place while Mrs. Harris, who stayed somewhat longer than her husband, was still in the country and close to that town. For a time it seemed likely that the horrors of the winter of 1895-'96 would be repeated through the whole district, and the excitement and alarm were intense. Eghin was the richest town relatively in Armenia. It had escaped massacre earlier by payment of a heavy bribe, but this excited the cupidity of the officials, who made such representations to Constantinople that orders came to massacre the Eghinese also. Mrs. Harris visited the place as soon after the massacre as the Turkish authorities would allow her to do so, and two of her letters were written there.

Everywhere the Harrises found that the men, and particularly the prominent men, had been killed off, leaving great numbers of helpless widows and orphans to be provided for. The men who remained were demoralized. Their houses had been destroyed and their property stolen. They feared to endeavor to rebuild, lest they should be again attacked, or to plant their fields when they had the means to do it, lest those should be devastated once more. In the cities the tools of the artisans had been stolen, and they had no means of earning a livelihood. The social fabric, as Prof. Harris puts it, had been shattered, and it was necessary to try to put together the machinery again, as one would reconstruct a clock. The difficulty of this work was vastly increased by the obstructiveness of the Turkish Government.

The description of the method of distributing relief pursued, so as to help and encourage the people to help themselves, is most interesting and instructive. Everywhere the Harrises found themselves working hand in hand with the American missionaries; and eulogies on the devotion, the heroism, and the sound, practical commonsense of these missionaries occur with a frequency very gratifying to American ears. On the other hand, when we read their story of the attack on the mission buildings and the American missionaries at Harpoot by the Turkish troops and officials, accompanying our admiration of the heroism of the missionaries there is a feeling of shame that our Government practically left them to their fate, and that to this day no one has been punished for the outrage and no indemnity exacted.

The Harrises give a most interesting and hopeful picture of the moral effect of these horrible massacres upon the Armenians in deepening religious feeling, uniting Gregorians and Protestants in one, and calling out unselfishness and brotherly kindness. Some of the acts of devotion and self-sacrifice described are extremely pathetic, and some equally inspiring. Prof. Harris was profoundly impressed with the resemblance between the problems which the Armenians now have to face and those which confronted the early Christians, and uses the former to throw light on early Church history in a most suggestive way.

We cordially recommend this book as very interesting reading, and as at the same time one of the most reliable accounts of the massacres, their causes and consequences, which have yet appeared.

The Mystic Flowery Land. By Charles J. H. Halcombe. London: Luzac & Co.; New York: Lemcke & Buechner. 1897.

WHETHER it be the awakening of sympathy with China because of her recent reverses in war, or because she herself seems yielding to reason and nobler councils than heretofore, it is certain that in their recent books Western writers have dealt less patronizingly with her, and evidently with more desire to do justice to a great nation, than was the custom a generation ago. Unless we mistake, there is even something like rivalry in the effort of Occidental writers to show appreciation of the better side of the Chinese. In the present instance, the author, who has been connected with the Imperial Maritime Customs of China, writes from an inside point of view, with appreciation and without exaggeration.

Seven years in China and an acquaintance with all kinds of people have enabled him to see many phases of life in the interior and in the open ports. His touch is light, but his insight is deep. He not only notices the Chinese dress and food, avocations, and amusements; he has studied also that world of imagination and fancy which has ever so powerful an influence on this world of toil and reality. He sees that men are influenced as much by what they think as by what exists. Consequently, we have in these thirty chapters sketches of mythical zoölogy, fairy stories, phantom ships and beings, wind and water influences, and local tales of pathos and of helpful example. Mr. Halcombe gives also glimpses of the dogmas and mysteries of Chinese religion, both as they influence daily life, and as they shape themselves in material forms of pictorial art, sculpture, and architecture. Not a little space is devoted also to the poetry and literature of the Chinese, though these are shown in hints and suggestions rather than in formal specimens. The element of personal adventure is not lacking, and there are some lively sketches of the author's travels, which were especially along the coast and by water. He is poetical, too, and adds seven or eight poems which will touch the hearts of those who remember the lovely scenery of Formosa —now no longer Chinese, but Japanese—of Amoy and of Hongkong. Few books that we remember have so many pretty pictures, both in words and by the reproduction of photographs, of the rocks of China, which help to correct the general impression that the landscape is mostly alluvial and flat. The book is liberally illustrated in both color and half-tone pictures; and in the selection of his illustrative matter the author has manifested great taste and skill.

LICENSED TO UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

The timeliness of the work is shown in a very interesting chapter on the great plague of Hongkong in 1894; in which, however, nothing is said about the discovery of the bacillus by the Japanese bacteriologist, Dr. Kitasato. Another chapter is on match-label collecting, which gives in pretty reproduction the richly colored labels used on the tiny boxes. In most cases the themes, both historical and contemporaneous, are Chinese; but the English legend "made in Japan" shows the place of origin of these fire and light-bearing necessities which now penetrate the remotest regions of the Chinese Empire. We notice that this book is printed in Amsterdam, Holland. Both in print, pictures, and binding, it is a good specimen of a moderate-priced book.

A History of Canada. By Charles G. D. Roberts. Boston: Lamson, Wolffe & Co. 1897.

THE summer tourist in Nova Scotia is impressed by the height of the tides in the Bay of Fundy, the prevalence of salmon at *table d'hôte*, and the sentimental associations of Grand Pré. One other thing will strike him if he enters into conversation with the natives: they seem to hold aloof from the rest of the Dominion. The local elections give particularist results, and when a "Bluenose" is on the point of visiting Montreal or Toronto, he will tell you that he is "going up to Canada"—doubtless recalling the union of Quebec and Ontario which existed from 1842 to 1867. Still, there are strong federalists in the province, witness Sir Charles Tupper, Dr. Bourinot, and the present writer, Prof. Roberts, formerly of King's College, Windsor. The latter does not look upon the British North America Act as a final solution, but thinks that it is a step in the right direction. "On this day [July 1, 1867] Canada became a nation free within itself, and bound to the British Empire by a bond of authority so silken that in a quarter of a century it has not been felt to gall." Prof. Roberts's goal is Imperial Federation in some form or other, and he gives Downing Street to understand that Canada, having taught "feeble provinces . . . how to form a mighty commonwealth while remaining within the empire," is fitted "to lead the way toward the realization of the vaster and more glorious dream." We accentuate his political spirit, for it animates his entire work. He sees in the early struggles between France and England the embryonic process by which a great state is being created. Poets are always subject to the influence of national ideals, and Prof. Roberts is by instinct a poet much more than an archæologist. He holds an even balance between the two races in the past, that he may allot each its share in unifying "the Empire of Greater Britain." A single sentence reflects the disposition of even-handed justice with which he approaches Louisburg and Quebec. "Now, in these imperial dominions which Wolfe's triumph secured to British sway, a people is taking shape which bids fair to combine the power and genius of the two great races from which it springs."

Prof. Roberts is more than a patriot; he is a rhetorical patriot. Herein lie elements of both strength and weakness. Restricted space invites intensity of utterance, and yet strong language, too frequently employed, loses its effect. The venial sin of gorgeous phrasing becomes heinous at times, especially in its connection with an account of Canada's resources. Prof. Roberts's section, 109, on "Material Progress," reads like an immigration tract. It is not to the immediate purpose that Canada's "fisheries are the most extensive in the world," or that "she may reasonably look to become the chief of all wheat countries." There is a proper place for stating these facts, but a note of weakness is surely sounded when they are elaborated in such a context. Canada's history is rich enough to save its writers from falling back on lobsters and grain to produce their effect. Judge Prowse, in his 'History of Newfoundland,' had an intelligible excuse for cataloguing the industrial resources of that island, since, when he wrote, its credit was in the last stage of decrepitude. Canada is solvent and fairly prosperous. We consider "tall talk" of this sort in bad taste wherever we find it in works that make literary pretensions. We cannot but deem it a fault in Prof. Roberts's text, otherwise very good and interesting.

This book is intended for the general reader. Footnotes are scarce and there are practically no references to authorities. The narrative is brisk; the treatment almost always adequate to the purpose, though we could well have spared to the Quebec Act a page or two from the later chapters. A few slips of the author and his printer need to be rectified. We are told that Brébeuf's courage failed on hearing the news of Viel's death, and that he turned back. This is far from being the case. "The whole Huron nation presently bowed to their [Jesuit] guidance," is also a statement which must be challenged. Prof. Roberts's description of the 1663 earthquakes follows legend rather than geological testimony. It was not "the weak Louis XVI." who attacked Frederick the Great in the Seven Years' War. "*Russia* and Austria," p. 163, is a misprint for Prussia; and "1674" on p. 208, for 1774. One would gather from p. 195 that the United Empire Loyalists left a mere rabble behind them. Prof. Roberts overlooks the part which economic causes played in the settlement of the Eastern Townships. Dr. Selwyn is not the present Director of the Geological Survey, nor should the *Eozoön Canadense* be authoritatively styled "the first of creatures." We pass rapidly over these slight errors to observe that the main outlines are firmly and skilfully drawn. Prof. Roberts compresses within the dimensions of a manual more than a little of the zest of history.

National Epics. By Kate Milner Rabb. Chicago: A. C. McClurg & Co. 1896.

THIS volume, which proceeds from a lady in Indianapolis, "is intended for an introduction to the study of the Epics." It aspires to give the general character of each of the world's great epic poems, and, where possible, of the author; a list of authorities; an analytic summary of contents, and select passages, which, in every case except Milton's two epics, are translated. The title is certainly open to criticism when we find the 'Pharsalia' and the 'Araucana' omitted—epics which are certainly national—while 'Paradise Lost' and 'Paradise Regained' are included, which as surely are not. It seems, also, as if some better idea of proportion might be devised whereby the dreary wastes of the 'Kalevala' should be traversed more rapidly, and the least attractive book of the 'Æneid' not expanded beyond the space given to the most so.

The author, of course, cannot be expected to have mastered the immense mass of epic literature at first hand; but where she may fairly be expected to have done so, she shows evidence of very superficial knowledge. Pope's 'Homer' and Fairfax's 'Tasso' are referred to as if recent works, and their chronological place is wholly obscured. In the very beginning of the 'Æneid' we are favored with the eternal high-school blunder, "opposite Italy, and far off from the Tiberine mouths." And what possible object can there be in recasting the finest speeches in 'Paradise Lost' into prose more artificial than verse? The work undertakes too much—and breaks down.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Altsheler, J. A. The Sun of Saratoga: A Romance of Burgoyne's Surrender. Appletons. $1.
Baker, Miss C. Alice. True Stories of New England Captives. Cambridge: The Author.
Balzac, H. de. The Lily of the Valley. London: Dent; New York: Macmillan. $1.50.
Bastable, Prof. C. F. The Theory of International Trade. Macmillan. $1.25.
Brown, D. W. The Factors of Shorthand Speed. New York Shorthand Publication Bureau.
Buckham, James. The Heart of Life. Boston: Copeland & Day. 75c.
Bullock, C. J. Introduction to the Study of Economics. Silver, Burdett & Co.
Cameron, Prof. A. G. Selections from Pierre Loti. Henry Holt & Co.
Carpenter, F. G. Carpenter's Geographical Reader. Asia. American Book Co. 60c.
Chapman, F. M. Bird-Life: A Guide to the Study of our Common Birds. Appletons. $1.75.
Coubertin, Pierre de. Souvenirs d'Amérique et de Grèce. Paris: Hachette.
Crane, Stephen. The Third Violet. Appletons. $1.
Dalton, Edith L. A Slight Romance. 2d ed. Boston: Damrell & Upham. 50c.
Day, Sarah F. Helpful Thoughts for Quiet Hours. Boston: Pilgrim Press. $1.75.
Drumont, Edouard. Mon Vieux Paris. Deuxième Série. Paris: Flammarion; New York: Brentanos.
Emerson, Sarah H. Life of Abby Hopper Gibbons; Told chiefly through her Correspondence. 2 vols. Putnams. $3.
Florio's Montaigne. Vol 2. [Temple Classics.] London: Dent; New York: Macmillan. 50c.
Goodell, Abner C. An Address in Commemoration of the Six Hundredth Anniversary of the First Summoning of Citizens and Burgesses to the Parliament of England. Boston: Rockwell & Churchill Press.
Greene, T. L. Corporation Finance. Putnams.
Guiney, Louise I. James Clarence Mangan: His Selected Poems, with a Study. Boston: Lamson, Wolffe & Co. $1.50.
Hammond, Mrs. John Hays. A Woman's Part in a Revolution. Longmans, Green & Co. $1.
Handbook to Christian and Ecclesiastical Rome. Part I. Christian Monuments. London: A. & C. Black; New York: Macmillan. $2.50.
Hinde, Capt. S. L. The Fall of the Congo Arabs. Whittaker. $2.50.
Hommel, Prof. Fritz. The Ancient Hebrew Tradition. E. & J. B. Young & Co. $1.75.
Hort, Rev. F. J. A. The Christian Ecclesia. Macmillan. $1.75.
Hurst, Rev. J. F. History of the Christian Church. Vol I. Eaton & Mains. $5.
Kipling, Rudyard. The Phantom 'Rickshaw, and Other Stories. [Outward Bound Edition.] Scribners.
Kirk, Ella B. The Story of Oliver Twist Condensed. Appletons. 60c.
Knapp, Adeline. Upland Pastures: Out-Door Essays. East Aurora, N. Y.: Roycroft Printing Shop.
Logan, J. A., Jr. In Joyful Russia. Illustrated. Appletons. $3.50.
Morgan, Prof. T. H. The Development of the Frog's Egg: An Introduction to Experimental Embryology. Macmillan. $1.60.
Myer, E. J. Position and Action in Singing. E. S. Werner. $1.75.
Rhys, Ernest. The Lyric Poems of Robert Herrick. London: Dent; New York: Macmillan. $1.
Ruth, M. von. Drei Losungsworte; Erzählung. Dresden: E. Pierson.
Sandys, J. E. The First Philippic and the Olynthiacs of Demosthenes. Macmillan.
Simon, Jules. Derniers Mémoires des Autres. Paris: Flammarion.
The Bible its Own Witness: or, the Foundation of the Scriptures Revealed by Modern Criticism. London: Elliot Stock.
The Massarenes. By Ouida. R. F. Fenno & Co. $1.25.
Urmy, Clarence. A Vintage of Verse. San Francisco: William Doxey. $1.25.
Ward, L. F. Dynamic Sociology; or, Applied Social Science. 2d ed. 2 vols. Appletons. $4.
Watson, Augusta C. Beyond the City Gates: A Romance of Old New York. E. P. Dutton & Co. $1.50.
Williams, R. O. Some Questions of Good English. Henry Holt & Co. $1.75.
Wilson, J. G. General Grant. [Great Commanders.] Appletons. $1.50.
Wolkonsky, Prince Serge. Pictures of Russian History and Russian Literature. Boston: Lamson, Wolffe & Co.
Yale, Dr. L. M. Nursery Problems. New and Enlarged ed. Contemporary Publishing Co.

LICENSED TO UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED